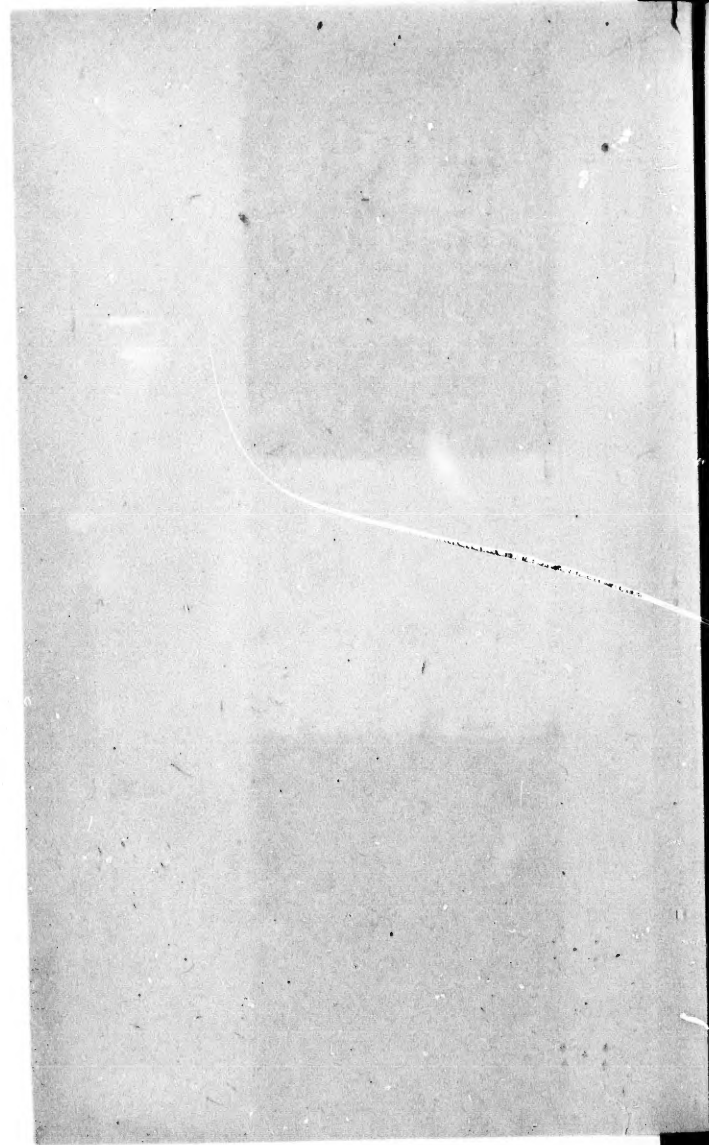




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FAMILY AND SCHOOL HISTORY OF AMERICA.

TUTTLE'S
NEW HISTORY OF AMERICA

AN

HISTORICAL AND DESCRIPTIVE TREASURY OF THE COUN-
TRIES OF NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA.

Illustrated with Portraits, Battle Scenes, Historical Incidents, etc.

BY

✓
CHARLES R. TUTTLE,

Author of "History of the Northwest," "History of Border Wars of Two
Centuries," Histories of the States of Michigan, Indiana,
Wisconsin, Iowa, Kansas, etc.

SCOPE OF THE WORK:

THE UNITED STATES;
DOMINION OF CANADA, and
BRITISH DEPENDENCIES;
WEST INDIES;

REPUBLIC OF MEXICO;
COUNTRIES OF CENTRAL AMERICA;
COUNTRIES OF SOUTH AMERICA;
AND ADJACENT ISLANDS.

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MADISON, WIS.:

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1876.

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1876.

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PREFACE.

It is admitted, almost universally, that there is a lamentable deficiency in historical knowledge among the families of America, and the fact is by no means confined to the poor, who are unable to purchase books, or to the non-reading classes. It arises, not from a general disrelish for the incidents and events of history, for it must be true that, as a rule, these are preferable to the mass of poor fiction now thrust upon the intelligence of the country; but it is because the works of American history presented are, for the most part, too lengthy, and, therefore, tedious. To become, in any large degree, acquainted with even the history of the United States, one is compelled to enter upon a course of reading, much of which is burdensome to the student, whose hours of study are limited by other duties. The same difficulty, in a greater measure, meets the study of other departments of American history.

The present work is an attempt to remove this difficulty in American histories. In its preparation, there has been a constant endeavor to present a work embracing all the important phases in the general history of the countries of North and South America, and to compress the material into such a limit that even "he who runs may read" its pages and profit therefrom.

CHARLES R. TUTTLE.

MADISON, WIS., *April*, 1876.

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THE

COUNTRIES OF NORTH AMERICA.

NORTH AMERICA.

EXTENT.—The North American Continent, including Central America, lies between the sixth parallel of north latitude and the Arctic Ocean. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico and South America, and the west by the Pacific Ocean. The length of the continent on the east side from Hudson's Straits to the Florida Channel following the indentations and windings of the coast is over 4,800 miles, and from that point to Panama, about 4,500 more, consequently the total length is 9,300 miles. On the Pacific side, the length following the California coast line, is over 10,500 miles, and the total coast line of the continent, including the north and northeast shores, is estimated at about 22,800 miles. The total area of the continent is about 8,377,648 square miles.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—The great political divisions of North America, are: *British America, United States, Mexico, Alaska, Danish America* (Greenland) and *Central America*.

UNITED STATES.

EXTENT.—The United States of America includes within well defined boundaries the best portion of the North American Continent, which for the major

part was less than two centuries ago almost entirely a wilderness. It embraces an area extending from the British possessions on the north to the Gulf of Mexico, and the republic of that name on the south, and is situated between $25^{\circ} 7'$ and 49° north latitude and between $66^{\circ} 58\frac{1}{4}'$ and $124^{\circ} 48'$ longitude west of Greenwich. The maximum breadth of the continent within the boundaries of the United States lies between the St. Croix River, in Maine, to Cape Flattery, in Oregon, the distance between those points being 2,744 miles. The maximum length is from the 49th parallel to the mouth of the Rio Grande, which is 1,588. The total area, excluding Alaska Territory, a comparatively modern acquisition, is 3,026,494 square miles. There are only three nations on the globe which exceed this vast extent of area—the first being the British Empire, including its East Indian possessions, with all its colonies and dependencies, very loosely held together; the Chinese Empire, the oldest nation existent; and the Russian Empire, embracing a wide extent of desert and uncultivable land.

I. BOUNDARIES.

1.—The Northern Boundary commences at the mouth of the St. Croix River in Passamaquoddy Bay, follows that river through Grand Lake to its source and thence proceeds due north until it strikes the St. John River. The line follows the St. John and St. Francis Rivers to the outlet of Lake Pohenagamock, whence it goes southwest to a point on the north branch of the St. John, ten miles from the main river. From the point last named, it stretches south 10° west, to the intersection of the southwest branch of the St. John River, and the parallel of $46^{\circ} 25'$ north latitude, follows this river to its source, thence the ridge of the dividing land from whence the affluents flow on one side to the St. Lawrence River and on the other to the Atlantic Ocean, to the source of Hall's stream, a tributary of the Connecticut, following this stream to the 45th parallel

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which becomes the boundary until it strikes the St. Lawrence River near the village of St. Regis; thence it passes through the middle of the St. Lawrence, Lake Ontario, Niagara River, Lake Erie, Detroit River, St. Clair Lake and River, Lake Huron and Lake Superior, to the mouth of Pigeon River; thence it ascends Pigeon River, crosses the Foul Lakes, and the Lake of the Woods to its northwestern extremity, in $49^{\circ} 23' 55''$ north latitude and $95^{\circ} 14' 38''$ west longitude, where it turns due south to the 49th parallel, and follows this parallel to the canal De Hans, which separates Vancouver's Island from the continent and the San Juan Islands.

2. — The Southern Boundary follows the deepest channel of the Rio Grande due north to 32° north latitude, thence runs due west to $108^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude, thence south to $31^{\circ} 31'$ north latitude, thence again west to 111° west longitude, thence west northwest to the Colorado River, below the mouth of the Gila River. From this point the boundary line runs to the Pacific coast opposite the Carronadoo Island. The southern or Gulf Coast extends from Cape Sable the extremity of Florida, to the mouth of the Rio Grande and is very similar to the Atlantic coast, being low and level. The sea indents the coast with numerous bays and inlets, as the Laguna Madre, Corpus Christi, Matagorda, and Galveston Bays in Texas; Vermilion, Atchafalaya, Terrabonne, and Timbalier Bays in Louisiana; the Bay of Mobile in Alabama; and Pensacola and Tampa Bays, besides smaller inlets in Florida.

II. SURFACE.

The Surface of the United States presents numerous marked characteristics, but in the general arrangement of its more striking features, it is quite simple. It is naturally divided into three very distinct areas, *videlicet*, the Eastern, the Central, and the Western.

1. — The Eastern Area or belt consists of the Ap-

Appalachian Mountain Range, more familiarly known as the Alleghanies, which form part of the range, together with the low plain which stretches along the sea coast and extends backwards until the base of the mountains is reached and gradually ascended. This plain is of various width at different points, as for instance, the average breadth in New England is nearly fifty miles, but in New York and New Jersey the area is much narrower, and farther south in North and South Carolina the marginal plain extends from the sea to a depth of more than two hundred miles. South of New Jersey and Pennsylvania, the plain may be divided into two sections, that to the east being low, level and sandy in the main, that to the west undulating, broken, and in some regions, diversified by chains of hills more or less considerable. The eastern portion is known as the Tide Water Section; the western is known as the Piedmont District, a name commonly used in Virginia. The Appalachian Mountains constitute a belt about one hundred miles wide and one thousand three hundred miles long, covering an area of very nearly 125,000 square miles, extending from the Canadian Province of New Brunswick to Northern Georgia and Alabama, where the last spur sinks down and is lost in the nearly horizontal expanse. The Mountains consist of many chains of hills almost parallel and extending over vast distances nearly uniform in elevation and bearing. Between these several heights there are numerous valleys and slopes ascending the mountain sides to considerable altitudes which invite settlement and have already secured a large but scattered population, attracted by numerous advantages of soil, water and vegetation. Toward the west the base of the Appalachians is merged in a broad table land slightly elevated, and intersected by water courses which rise at many points among the mountains, and flow into the Mississippi. Western New York, Pennsylvania, Western Virginia and the largest part of Ohio, are embraced in this vast plateau of table land,

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as also are the southeastern counties of Indiana, nearly the whole of Kentucky and Tennessee, and a very considerable section of Alabama.

2.—The Western Region consists of the larger part of the mountainous area and range of table lands known as the North American Cordilleras, which follow the Pacific coast of the continent, from the Isthmus of Panama, to the margin of the Arctic Ocean. Within the United States, the Cordilleras fill the area between the 105th meridian west of Greenwich and the western coast. The border toward the east is formed by the Rocky Mountains and to the west the line is marked by the lofty chains of the Sierra Nevada and Cascade Mountains; the spurs and projections of this vast system form the Coast Ranges of California, Oregon and Washington, abounding with bold promontories and ridges upon the Pacific Coast. Between the lofty chains of the border, there are numerous broken and detached ranges, which have received distinctive appellations from explorers and settlers, but all manifestly belonging to the same system.

3.—Nearly all the maps of North America hitherto issued represent the Rocky Mountains as one range continuous throughout. The map makers have in that respect been betrayed into an error. There are two ranges, and even more, which include the highest portions of the continental plateau, connected by traverse ridges at irregular distances. The ridges cut the plateau into a succession of smaller parks or plateaus, which are shut in by gigantic elevations and have a very picturesque appearance, in never ending variety. From the grand chains, there are secondary ranges which radiate and strike out into the plains, forming the base of the Rocky Mountains along their whole area. To the south the terminus of the mountain chains lies between the Rio Grande and the Pecos Rivers in western Texas, in about 30° north latitude. Trending northwest from this point to 32° north latitude, they then change their general bearing to due north, trav-

ersing New Mexico, Colorado and Southern Wyoming until they sink down in that remarkable depression through which the Sweet Water River and the North Platte flow from west to east, the western portion of which is known as the South Pass. North of the gap the Rocky Mountains rise again trending northwest through Wyoming, Idaho and Montana. The western chain forms the boundary between Idaho and Montana, and in that relation will be more particularly dealt with.

4.—The Rocky Mountains form the dividing range between the western tributaries of the Mississippi and the considerable streams that flow onward to the Pacific Ocean. Their mean elevation is ten thousand feet, hence, they form the highest point of the continent, several of the peaks exceeding fourteen thousand feet in height. The grandeur of this system of mountains may best be conveyed to the mind of the reader by a statement briefly rendered of a few of the principal elevations commencing with Fremont's Peak in Wyoming, whose height is 13,570 feet; Long's Peak in Colorado, 14,050 feet; Mount Audubon, near the peak last mentioned, but to the west, 13,456 feet; Perry's Peak, about nine miles from the 40th parallel, 13,133 feet; Mount Guyot, twenty-five miles north of the 39th parallel, 13,223 feet; Gray's Peak, six miles west of the city of Denver, 14,145 feet; Mount Silverheels, to the southwest of Mount Guyot, 13,650 feet; Mount Lincoln, northwest of Mount Silverheels and but a few miles distant, 14,123 feet; Horseshoe Mount, southeast of Mount Lincoln, about eight miles distant, 13,806 feet; the world famous Pike's Peak, 14,218; Mount Yale, about fourteen miles south of the 39th parallel and west of the River Arkansas, 14,078 feet; and Mount Harvard, five miles northwest of Mount Yale, the greatest eminence, 14,270 feet. There are innumerable peaks and mountain tops of lesser altitude, yet waiting to be named, and the entire chain is found to average ten thousand feet as already mentioned.

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5.—The Vast Mountain Range which constitutes the western edge of the Cordilleras is known in California as the Sierra Nevada or Snowy Range and that name is rapidly being adopted everywhere to describe this section of the greater chain. In Oregon and in Washington, the name changes to the Cascade Mountains, the range continuing the whole course and conforming to the general direction of the coast, from which its distance, reckoning from mountain crest to shore line, varies from one hundred and fifty to one hundred and seventy miles. The Sierra Nevada covers a distance of about 550 miles from Tejon Pass in the south, to Mount Shasta in the northwest; the eastern slope is abrupt and bold, and does not exceed ten miles in width, but the western slope, about sixty miles broad, falls gently to the surface of the valley of the San Joaquin and Sacramento Rivers, until it is lost in the rolling plain. Toward the south there are three high crests, and between them are inclosed the two valleys of the two arms of Kern River. From latitude 36° to Lassen's Peak in $40^{\circ} 30'$ the Sierra has but one crest, and from that point to Mount Shasta there is an elevated plateau clearly volcanic, which terminates toward the east in Warner's Range. There is not so much uniformity in the Sierra Nevada range as in the Rocky Mountains, but the average of elevation is about the same. The loftiest peaks are in the southern parts of the Sierras and from $36^{\circ} 30'$ latitude going north the altitudes of the peaks and of the passes continually decrease; the peaks diminishing from 15,000 to 8,400 feet, and the passes decreasing from 12,000 to 5,400 feet. So far as explorations have yet determined, Mount Whitney near the head waters of Kern River is the loftiest summit, having an altitude of 15,300 feet above the level of the sea, or about one thousand feet higher than Mount Harvard, the tallest peak in the Rocky Mountains. Mount Tyndall is 13,886 feet high, and Mount Brewer 13,886, Mount Lyell 13,217, Mount Dana 13,227 feet, Mount

Hoffman 10,872, Silver Mountain 10,935 feet, Pyramid Peak 10,600, Mount Shasta 14,440, the Downieville Buttes 8,400 and Mount Onjumi 8,378 feet. From Mount Shasta the Cascade Mountains trend due north through Oregon and Washington, forming a prolongation of the Sierra Nevada, resembling the other part of the range in general characteristics, but at a greatly reduced elevation. The transverse valley of Columbia River cuts through the Cascade Mountain Range, and there are some few very high peaks and elevations, as for instance Mount Reinier, 14,444 feet; Mount Baker, 10,719 feet; Diamond Peak, Mount Hood, 11,225 feet; and Mounts Adams and Saint Helen's ranging near 9,500 feet high.

6. -- Between the Sierra Nevada and Cascade Mountain Range and the Rocky Mountains there is an extensive region of table-land, broken by detached mountains, valleys and plains which communicate with each other through narrow defiles, winding around ridges and spurs innumerable, traversing narrow and romantic valleys which occasionally open out into broad plains, which are among the least lovely features of this region. The narrow defiles are customarily green and beautiful, but, as the plain increases in breadth, the beauty of vegetation is lost. The mountains are always in sight, and the lowest level is at an altitude of 4,000 feet above the sea, from which the traveler may look upon craggy mountain tops bright and glistening with perpetual snow, which retreats to the highest points as summer advances. The wood upon the ranges is but thin at the best, and, at limited heights, the vegetation becomes stunted, disappearing entirely before the region of perpetual snow is reached. Looked at from a distance, the mountains seem to be massive and solid as they loom up into the purple atmosphere, and the visitor sees no promise of the canons and valleys which intersect these ranges in every direction, deeply cut into the projecting stony ribs of the earth. Down the sides of these canons

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trickle streams which gush from unfailing springs high up in the hills, where they are fed by the perpetual snows above. The massive rocks look like the buttresses which might have been erected by the Titans when they began their warfare with the gods; and they stand aloft in the pure, crisp air, contributing an unmatched scenic beauty, such as Bierstadt can only approach, but all to be eclipsed by the panoramic effects which reward the sightseer as he scales the top-most heights, and looks abroad upon the earth spread out beneath his feet. The best characteristics of western mountain scenery are massed in the country which joins together the Rocky Mountains with the Sierra Nevada and the Cascade Mountains.

7. — The Wahsatch Mountains, which pass through Central Utah from north to south, is one of the most important of these ranges, attaining almost the same elevation as the Rocky Mountains, then passing as a broad belt of highlands which terminates near the banks of the Colorado River in the northwestern angle of Arizona. Towards the east, the Uintah Mountains branch off from the Wahsatch, and are only cut off from the spurs of the Rocky Mountains by the narrow defile of the Colorado River. The high basin of the Upper Colorado, which is traversed east and west by the Union Pacific Railroad, is to the north of the Uintah Mountains, bordered by the Rocky Mountains and the Wahsatch. The basin of the Middle Colorado occupies a lower terrace south of the Uintahs, extending to the table land of the White Mesa, which stretches from the Rocky Mountains westward to the southern extremity of the Wahsatch. The world-famous canons owe their grandeur, which ranks them among the finest sights visible on the earth, to the power of the Colorado which cut through the table lands of the White Mesa. The Mogollon Mountains are still farther toward the south, and there are numerous other chains in Arizona which all trend southeast and northwest.

8.—The region which is bordered on the east by the Wahsatch Mountains and the northern parts of the Rocky Mountains, and on the west by the Sierra Nevada and the Cascade Mountains, is properly known as the Great Basin, its breadth varying from two hundred to four hundred and fifty miles. There are several isolated mountains within this area, seldom exceeding ten miles in width, with a trend north and south generally evident; of these, the most important are the Humboldt Mountains, about 75 miles from the Utah line; the West Humboldt Mountains, 100 miles east of California and flanking the Reese River Valley on the east, almost intermediate between the Humboldt and West Humboldt, the Toyabe Mountains. Several peaks of the East Humboldt and Toyabe ranges have an altitude of from 10,000 to 12,000 feet. The Humboldt River intersects the central part of the Great Basin from east to west, and, north of that river, the mountains present a different character from those already named, as they are not arranged like the Rocky Mountains in parallel ridges, but seem to radiate from a central nucleus in almost every direction. There are several of these nuclei, and the character of the radiation is as nearly identical as seems to be possible in the arcana of nature where no two forms are exactly the same. The middle course of Snake River divides two such ranges, known as the Salmon River Mountains of Idaho, and the Blue Mountains in eastern Oregon. Columbia River plain, with an elevation hardly exceeding two thousand feet, constitutes eastern Washington; there are three main depressions within this region, one at the foot of the Sierra, 3,850 feet above the level of the sea, receives almost the whole drainage of northern Nevada and the eastern slope of the Sierra; the second, known as the Great Salt Lake Basin, about 4,250 feet above the sea level, near the western base of the Wahsatch; and the third, known as the Dead Valley, in southeastern California is several hundred feet below the level of the sea.

9.—The Central Region is commonly known as the Mississippi Valley, and it extends from the Appalachian Mountains in the east to the Rocky Mountains in the west. This immense plain comprises an area of 2,455,000 square miles, and it extends through thirty degrees of longitude and twenty-three degrees of latitude. The Height of Land, a vast plateau less than two thousand feet above the sea, bounds the valley on the north, separating it from the Red River Valley of the north. The Red River is one of the great feeders of Lake Winnipeg in British America. The alluvial bottom or flood ground of the Mississippi, which extends from the mouth of the Ohio River to the Gulf of Mexico, is the lowest part of the valley. This bottom is occasionally subject to inundation, and it varies in breadth from thirty miles to seventy, some parts being little other than swamp and impenetrable forests, in many parts covering a large part of the area. Bluffs on both sides of the bottom rise more or less precipitously to the prairies, sometimes at a level of from 150 to 200 feet above the level of the river. The bluffs approach very near to the river at some points, as at the Chalk Banks near Hickman, Ky.; at the Iron Banks near Columbus; at Fulton, Randolph and Memphis, Tenn.; at Vicksburg, Grand and Petite Gulf, Natchez and Fort Adams, Miss.; and at Francisville and Baton Rouge, La. From the sometimes precipitous bluffs the country rises almost imperceptibly toward the east and west, and is cut through at intervals by the rivers and streams which feed the Great Father of Waters, making transverse valleys of greater and less extent. The Ozark Mountains, about two thousand feet high, a belt of uplands and hills rather than mountainous elevations, rises from the western plain and occupies portions of the Indian Territory, Arkansas and Missouri. The higher parts of this area extend along the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains, and are known as the Great Plains.

III. RIVERS AND LAKES.

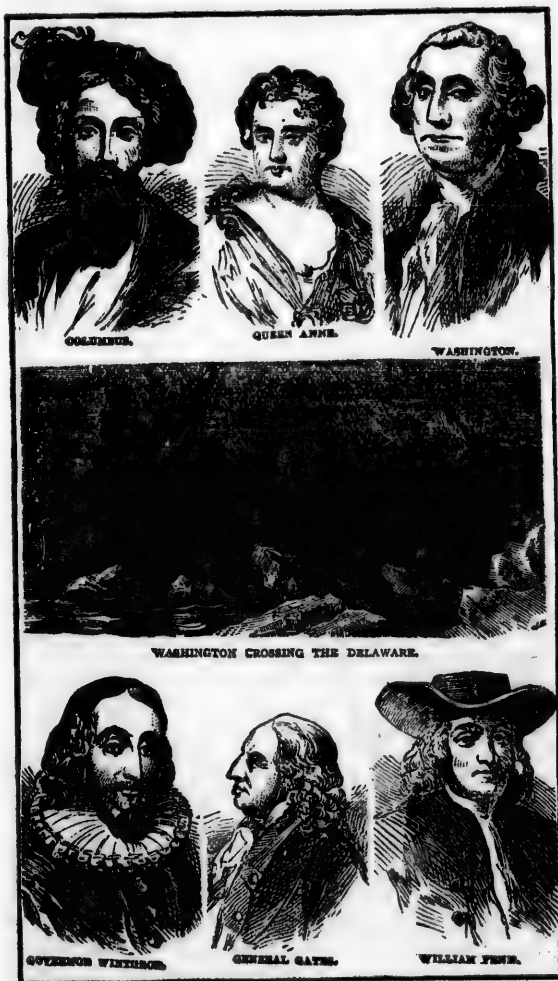
The Rivers of the United States are divisible into three systems, which correspond to the divisions of the continent already described. In the first category we place the rivers which empty into the Atlantic; in the second, those which flow into the Pacific; and the third category embraces those which discharge their volume into the Gulf of Mexico.

1. — The Largest Stream which enters the Atlantic is the St. Lawrence; its course intersects the Dominion of Canada, but it also forms the boundary of the state of New York, and drains the Great Lakes, receiving numerous affluents from the north central states, hence it is an integral part of the river system of the United States. Although not the longest river in the world, it is by far the greatest, surpassing every other in the volume of water which it contributes to the sea. The St. Louis River is the head stream which rises in the Height of Land, flows through northeastern Minnesota, emptying into Lake Superior at its western extremity. Lake Superior is an expansion of the St. Lawrence, and the Sainte Marie, St. Clair, Detroit and Niagara Rivers are only different portions of the same great stream. From the head waters of the St. Louis to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the length of the stream is upwards of two thousand miles, and the general direction which it bears in its course to the head of Lake Erie is southeast, and from that point to the mouth of the river, northeast. The Fox River, rising in Southern Wisconsin, and flowing northeast, is one of the principal tributaries. The Fox River empties into Green Bay. The other tributaries worthy of notation are the Oconto, Peshtigo and Menomonee, flowing into Green Bay; the Manistee, Notepseacon, Muskeagon, Grand, Kalamazoo, and St. Joseph Rivers, emptying into Lake Michigan; the Au Sable and Saginaw, flowing into Lake Huron; the Maumee, formed by the confluence of the St. Joseph and St. Mary, at Fort

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Wayne, emptying into Lake Erie; which Lake also receives the Sandusky, Rock, Cuyahoga, and Grand Rivers, which traverse and largely drain Northern Ohio. Through Lake Ontario the Genesee and the Oswego find their way to the ocean, the last named river being the outlet of the lakes in Central New York; the Crooked, Seneca, Cayuga, Owasco, Skeneateles, and Oneida. The Black River rises in the Adirondack Mountains, emptying into the eastern extremity of Lake Ontario. The St. Lawrence proper receives the Oswegatchie, Racket, and Richelieu Rivers. The Richelieu is the outlet of Lake Champlain and Lake George.

2.—The Principal Rivers of New England include the St. Croix, which rises in Grand Lake, 382½ feet above the sea level, and empties into Passamaquoddy Bay, forming the eastern boundary of Maine; the Penobscot, which draws its main supplies from Pamadumcook and Chesuncook Lakes, and has for its principal tributaries on its course the Seboois and the Mattawamkeag before its discharge into Penobscot Bay; the Kennebec which starts from Moosehead Lake, and has for its main tributary the Androscoggin; the Merrimac, which owes its volume to the junction of the Pemigedasset and the Winnipiseogee; the lake Winnipiseogee drains through the river last named; and the Connecticut, which takes its rise in the Height of Land, very near the boundary of Vermont. There are two branches of the Connecticut, and the western arm is commonly known as Hall's Stream. The river flows almost due south until it reaches Middletown, Conn., and at that point changes to southeast, emptying at last into Long Island Sound. New England has but few rivers that are navigable far inland, but that fact is due to the configuration of the country, not to any lack of volume in its streams.

3.—New York owes its largest river to the Adirondacks, where the Hudson takes its rise, receiving, among many minor tributaries, the Sacondago and the

Mohawk before the major stream flows into New York Bay. The Hudson is a majestic river, and the scenery upon its banks is by many travelers held to surpass even the world famous Rhine, of which tourists have sung in every language known on this footstool. The river Delaware takes its rise in two branches within the state, and its southern course forms the boundary line between New Jersey and Pennsylvania. The Lehigh and the Schuylkill Rivers are the main tributaries of the Delaware. The Susquehanna has also two branches east and west, and the conjoined stream flows through Pennsylvania to the head of Chesapeake Bay, receiving the Juniata in its course. The James River, the largest in Virginia, the Rappahannock and the Potomac, also discharge into Chesapeake Bay. The Roanoke River is the result of a junction between the Staunton and the Dan, and the union is effected very near to the southern boundary line of Virginia. The Roanoke discharges its volume into Albemarle Sound. The Neuse River has no tributaries worthy of note, and the stream falls into Pamlico Sound. The Deep and the Haw Rivers combine to form Cape Fear River, which flows through southern North Carolina to very near Cape Fear. The Wateree and the Congreve Rivers, which form the Yackin and the Santee River, are the principal streams in South Carolina. The boundary between South Carolina and Georgia is marked by the Savannah River, which results from the junction of the Tugaloo and Kiawa, and the stream finds its outlet below the city of Savannah. Steamboats ascend on this river as far as Augusta, Ga. The River Altamaha is formed by the combination of the Oconee and the Ocmulgee Rivers. The River St. John's of Florida, takes its rise in a great swamp in that region and, flowing north from that point, speedily makes a bend to the east and empties into the ocean. Most of the rivers mentioned can be navigated as far as tide water ascends.

4. — The largest river emptying into the Pacific is

into New York and the scenery held to surpass what tourists have footstool. The branches within the boundary of Virginia. The Lehigh is the main tributary. It has also two named stream flows into Chesapeake Bay, the James River, York and the Potomac Bay. The junction between the two is effected very near Virginia. The Albemarle Sound is worthy of note, and the Deep River, Cape Fear River, Carolina to very near the Congaree River, Santee River, are in it. The boundary is marked by the junction of the stream finds its way. Steamboats ascend it. The River Alabama of the Oconee River St John's of camp in that region, speedily makes a run to the ocean. Most of the country is irrigated as far as tide water goes into the Pacific is

the Columbia, which takes its origin in a small lake at the western base of the Rocky Mountains, and from that region flows north north west along the the range to the base of Mount Hooker, whence it turns west for a brief space, and eventually flows south, forming in this portion of its course the Arrow Lakes, Upper, Middle and Lower. The Columbia is joined by the Clark Fork shortly after it crosses the southern boundary of British Columbia and enters Washington Territory, and continuing its southerly direction to about 48° north latitude, makes a bend to the west, and with a bold but somewhat tortuous curve sweeps around the Great Columbia Plain. The largest tributary of the Columbia is the Snake River, which is received at the point 46° north latitude, and 117° longitude west of Greenwich. After being thus increased, the river flows west to the Pacific Ocean, constituting the boundary between Oregon and Washington Territory. The Columbia forms a series of rapids or cascades as it passes through a gap in the mountain chain, to which it gives the name of Cascade Mountains. The waterfalls are separated from each other by long intervals of from twenty-five to thirty miles, in which the stream flows placidly along. At the mouth of this river there is an estuary about six miles wide and fully thirty miles in length, which opens into the ocean almost midway between Cape Disappointment and Point Adams. The navigation on the river is good as far as the lowest cascade, which is about one hundred and forty miles from the mouth of the river, and steamers are engaged in traffic there. Above the highest cascade, there is also a good navigable stream as far as Old Fort Walla Walla. The two navigations have been joined by means of railroad communication, which runs around the cascades. The distance overland from the source of the river to its mouth is very nearly 670 miles; but the river's length is 1,150 miles, and the area of country drained in its convolutions and by its tributaries is 388,880 square miles. The tributaries of the

river are numerous and extensive. The Flat Bow Fork takes its rise in the Rocky Mountains of British Columbia, and thence flows south into Montana, returning by a west northwest course into Columbia, where it joins the great stream near to the southern extremity of the Lower Arrow Lake. Flat Head River and Bitter Root River unite to form Clark's Fork. Flat Head River rises south of Kootanie Pass, in the Rocky Mountains, and from that point runs south through Flat Head Lake, turning west on leaving the lake. Bitter Root River has its origin in the Big Hole Mountains, and its course is northerly between Bitter Root and Rocky Mountains, where it traverses a very magnificent valley, receiving Blackfoot River and Big Hole River from the east. After the Flat Head and Bitter Root Rivers join, Clark's Fork has a northwest course along the base of the Cœur d'Allene Mountains, and passing through Lake Pend d'Oreille, it flows into the Columbia River near the 49th parallel of latitude. Another river, the Spokane, has its rise in the Bitter Root Mountains, whence its course lies west through Cœur d'Allene Lake, to join the Columbia in $47^{\circ} 46'$ north latitude.

5. — Snake River, sometimes known as Lewis' Fork, has its origin in the Wind River Mountains, and its course is south along the eastern foot of the Titan Range, from whence it passes through a gap between the Wind River and Bear River Mountains. The course changes to southwest after a junction with Henry's Fork, through Camas Prairie, a very extensive tract; but the rocky plateau in southern Idaho deflects the stream to the west, while separating it from the Humboldt River. The stream bends to the north in $116^{\circ} 45'$ west longitude, and constitutes the boundary between Idaho and Oregon; thence passing through southeastern Washington, Snake River discharges into the Columbia nearly ten miles north of the Old Fort Walla Walla. In many parts of its course the river has quite a fine appearance, and the scenery is very

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impressive, especially in the more mountainous parts of its course. Snake River has many falls of large dimensions. Some enthusiasts contend that it has some cataracts which will compare favorably even with Niagara. The largest tributaries are Godin's River, McArthur River, Salmon River, and Clear Water River in Idaho; Paloon River, in Southeastern Washington; and in Oregon, Owyhee, Malheur, and Grande Ronde Rivers. The Columbia receives the John Day's River just below the point of junction with Snake River. The John Day's River has its rise in the Blue Mountains. Other affluents fall in in rapid succession, including the *Des Chutes*, or the The Falls, which have their course along the eastern base of the Cascade Mountains, and the Willamette River, which traverses a rich and fertile valley in Western Oregon, with the Cascade Mountains on one side and the Coast Ranges on the other. The Sacramento and the San Joaquin are the two largest in the state of California, both discharging into the Bay of San Francisco.

6. — The Colorado River of the West is the result of the confluence of the Greene and Grand Rivers. The stream falls into the Gulf of California. Greene River rises in the Wind River Mountains, which are the loftiest of the Rocky Mountain Ranges in the Territory of Wyoming, and the stream flows south across the high land which is traversed by the Union Pacific Railroad. The rise of the Uintah Mountains deflects the stream to the east; but after their base is passed, the stream goes south once more, through the very beautiful basin formed by the Wahsatch and the Rocky Mountains. Greene River joins Grand River near the 38th parallel. Grand River rises in the Middle Park of Colorado, and breaks a way through the western chain of the Rocky Mountains, flowing southwest between the Elk Mountain and Book Mountain. After the Greene and Grand Rivers join, the Colorado flows southwest until it enters the great chasms known as the Great Canon in the White Mesa. The Colorado

emerges from the Great Canon at Collville, in southwestern Nevada, flowing due south from that point through valleys and canons until it reaches across the low Colorado Desert to plunge into the Gulf of California. Reckoning the length of the Colorado from the source of Greene River until it falls into the gulf, the river exceeds one thousand miles, and, with its numerous affluents, its drainage area is 227,000 square miles. From the west the tributaries are small, but the eastern tributaries are larger and more numerous. The *Rio Blanco* or *San Juan* has its rise in the Sierra Mimbres, and pursues a westerly course. The Zuni Mountains give birth to the Flax River or Little Colorado, which flows by the southern margin of the White Mesa, having its course through the deep canons which abound in that region. Gila River comes with a tortuous westerly course from the mountains of southwestern New Mexico through numerous mountain chains to join the Colorado River near the southwestern angle of Arizona.

7. — The great central plain of the United States is drained by the rivers which discharge their contents into the Gulf of Mexico, and the watershed which divides this system of rivers from the others which drain into the Pacific and the Atlantic Oceans must be briefly described. The Watershed commences in southern Mexico, and trends north along the ranges which border the valley through which the Rio Grande flows, and on the west reaches the South Park. Crossing then to the east, curving around Middle Park, the western chain of the Rocky Mountains is followed to the 45th parallel, where it bends east, inclosing almost the head waters of the Missouri River. After reaching the 46th parallel, the ridge trends northwest along the eastern chain of the Rocky Mountains. The Watershed of the North which separates the tributaries of the Mississippi from the sources of supply for Lake Winnipeg and the Great Lakes, passes through Dakota between Lake Traverse and Big Stone Lake, following

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the Height of Land in northern Minnesota, passing through Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio and Pennsylvania, but little distant from the southern shores of Lake Michigan and Lake Erie. The eastern drainage area passes through the beautiful plateau of western Pennsylvania, and then following the Alleghany Mountains until it reaches the Great Kanawha River, where it crosses to the Blue Ridge, and follows that range right through Virginia and North Carolina until, near the head waters of the Savannah River, the trend proceeds south through Georgia and Florida. The territory hastily sketched in the lines thus described is larger than the whole area of western Europe, and its fertility cannot be surpassed in the world, assuming always the same skill in husbandry to be applied to the soil. The United States have herein a wonderfully productive region, whose boundless wealth is only beginning to be appreciated. Many of the streams traversing this area are navigable for an immense proportion of their length; and but for the unexampled rapidity with which railroads have been extended, this network of rivers would be still more largely used as a means of communication between distant and populous cities, as they constitute the finest network of riparian facility that can be found in the world.

8. — The Mississippi is the largest of these rivers, and is appropriately distinguished as the Father of Waters. The river rises near the northern boundary of the United States, and may be said to bisect the area from north to south, so that one-third of the country lies east of the river bed, and the remainder to the west. On the Height of Land in northern Minnesota we find the source at an elevation of 1,680 feet above the level of the sea, and by the river 2,616 miles from its mouth, the distance overland being 1,295 miles. The area drained by this gigantic stream is no less than 1,244,000 square miles. Many of the tributaries of the Mississippi are rivers of great magnitude, bringing from the west the drainage of the Rocky Moun-

tains, and from the east the tribute of the Appalachian chain, to the grand stream which floats the commerce of a nation. The great tributaries from the east to the Mississippi are the Wisconsin, the Illinois, the Ohio, the Yazoo and the Big Black Rivers. The Ohio River is constituted by the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany Rivers at Pittsburg, which are joined by numerous affluents, including among many smaller streams the Muskingum, Scioto, Miami, Wabash, the Great Kanawha, Kentucky, Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers. From the west the principal tributaries are the Minnesota River, the Des Moines, the Missouri, the Arkansas, and the Red River. The Des Moines intersects the state of Iowa; the Missouri rises in the Rocky Mountains of Montana, and in its length this tributary exceeds the Mississippi by nearly three hundred miles, being 2,908 miles from its source to the ocean, and in its course it receives the Yellow Stone, the Platte, the Kansas and the Osage Rivers. The Arkansas River has its source in the Rocky Mountains of Colorado, and the Red River rises on the Llano Estacado.

9.—The streams which discharge into the Gulf west of the Mississippi are those which are found intersecting Texas, including the Sabine, Trinity, Brazos, Colorado, Nueces and Rio Grande, the last named being the boundary line separating Texas from Mexico. This river rises in the San Juan Mountains and takes its course through the San Luis Park, pursuing a course almost due south to the 33d parallel, turning thence southeast to empty itself into the Gulf to the south of the Laguna Madre, not far from the petty village of Bagdad. The largest tributary of the Rio Grande is the Pecos River. East of the Mississippi the rivers which are discharged into the Gulf are not so numerous; they include the Mobile River which results from the junction of the Tombigbee and the Alabama Rivers; the last named being a combination of the Cahawba and Coosa Rivers at a point above Montgomery; the Appalachicola River which is formed by the union of

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River which rises in southern Georgia and intersects
northern Florida.

IV. CLIMATE AND VEGETATION.

The area of the United States is within the warm
belt of the temperate zone. To the north its boundary
is $17\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of latitude from the southernmost limit of the
frigid zone, and to the south it escapes the tropic of
Cancer by nearly $1\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, and thus both extremes are
avoided, except in the territory of Alaska and in the
highest of the Cordilleras where severe cold is experi-
enced. Generally the temperature favors the devel-
opment of civilized communities, and sufficient mois-
ture falls, as a rule, to allow of agricultural pursuits
being prosecuted with advantage. The mean annual
temperature of a country may seem favorable to hu-
man life and to progress, yet the distribution of heat
and cold be such as to minimise the possibilities and
results of industry; but no such results have to be
complained of as oppressing humanity in this region.
Climatology has of late years become almost a science
in itself, and the large series of meteorological obser-
vations made within the last two decades give a superb
foundation, and may soon carry that branch of study
to its topmost limit; but a detailed discussion of its
modes would be foreign to our purpose here. The
United States may be conveniently divided into two
sections in describing its climate and vegetation.
Nearly two-thirds of the area may be included in the
eastern portion extending from the coast abutting on
the Atlantic to the Great Plains, and the western in-
cludes the Great Plains and the Cordilleras, extending
thence to the Pacific coast.

1.—EASTERN SECTION. Comparative uniformity
is the main feature in the distribution of temperature,
as the isothermal lines which indicate comparative
warmth cross the country almost always from east to
west in every latitude. Northern Minnesota and

northern Maine are the coldest portions, and in these the mean temperature for the year is 36° in the first, and 40° in the last. The highest limit is in southern Florida at the mouth of the Rio Grande, where it reaches 75° .

2.—The country east of the Appalachian Mountains differs from the Mississippi Valley in the distribution of temperature, the greater extremes being in the Valley. The mean temperature of Cambridge, Massachusetts, and Dubuque, Iowa, is very nearly the same, but the coldest month in Dubuque has an average of $17\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, and that of the coldest month in Cambridge shows $25\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$. The hottest months show respectively in Cambridge $69\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$, and in Dubuque 75° , consequently the variation is nearly 14° greater in Dubuque, Iowa, than in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The facts speak for themselves.

3.—The influence of Oceanic currents and the winds prevailing at certain seasons, regulate temperature very largely. The summers are as warm in the eastern section of the United States as in corresponding latitudes in Europe, but the winters are colder. New York, in 41° north latitude, has nearly the same mean temperature for the year as Brussels, which is 10° further south, but the difference is mainly noticeable in the winter seasons. In the summer the northern parts of the United States realize almost the warmth of Italy, but the winters remind one of Sweden. This series of facts allows the cultivation of cereals in high latitudes that would be fatal to their production in Europe.

4.—Almost the whole area of the Union lies within the zone of variable winds, in which the whole of the points of the compass seem to be taxed to fill the law of change which has been demonstrated by Dove. There are two primary currents, one from the north, toward the equator, and the other in the precisely opposite direction, which temporarily displace each other, giving rise to all the changes that have been noticed,

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but in the main westerly winds predominate, almost
equalling all the other directions noted as prevailing
in nearly eleven hundred observations at Portland,
Me., Atlanta, Ga., and at Dubuque, Iowa.

5.—The zone of the trade winds extends to the
39th parallel during the summer, and the southern
portion of the United States should experience pre-
vailing winds from the northeast but the Gulf of
Mexico exerts a local influence which changes the cur-
rent to south and southwest, and the winds thus indi-
cated are experienced as far inland as Cincinnati and
St. Louis. The greater heat of the land and conse-
quent rarefaction causes the prevalence referred to on
principles which have been made clear by Maury and
other writers. At St. Louis the prevailing winds from
April to October are south and southeast, and from
October to April, west and northwest winds are the
rule. Near the mouth of the Mississippi southerly
winds, varied by breezes from the east, prevail during
summer and early part of autumn.

6.—The Mississippi Valley owes much of its fer-
tility to the moist climate and genial warmth due to
the deflected trade winds just mentioned. North of
Mobile and Mississippi sound the annual rainfall is 63
inches, while Louisiana and Mississippi, near the great
stream has not so much rain by three inches, and
northeast and west from the points named the decrease
goes on steadily, until in Minnesota, Wisconsin and
Michigan, we find it reduced to thirty inches, or less
than one-half. Near the western ranges of the Appa-
lachians in Kentucky, Tennessee and eastern Ohio, the
rainfall is about 36 inches. The deflected trades cor-
responded with this area of decreasing rain as may be
seen in the eastern limits of the arid plains which
stretch for several hundred miles in breadth along the
eastern base of the Rocky Mountains.

7.—The seaboard is favored with a more copious
rainfall, which reaches to 63 inches in southern Flori-
da, 50 inches in Georgia, 48 inches in the Carolinas,

45 inches in Virginia, and from 40 to 42 inches in Pennsylvania, New York and New England.

8.— In the east, indigenous vegetation appears as forest and prairie, the first extending from the Atlantic coast to a line which would be described from southern Michigan to the mouth of the Sabine River, embracing the southern section of the Mississippi Valley. West of that line, including the northern section of the valley just named, the prevalent characteristic is the fertile prairie which at length terminates in arid plains.

9.— The forests in the north consist of evergreens, pine, spruce, and hemlock predominating. As the traveler proceeds south, deciduous trees, oak, elm, ash, maple and others of the like class gradually replace the evergreen. Pennsylvania and Indiana produce several species of oak, chestnut, hickory, black walnut, beech, sassafras and the tulip tree. Below Tennessee and North Carolina, the Southern States are rich in evergreens of another type, such as the live oak, the gordonia, the magnolia, of which extensive groves are found on the Gulf coast, and the palmetto which flourishes on the sea coast, from South Carolina to Florida. The peculiar growth known as Spanish Moss, with its long gray festoons, covers vast tracts of southern forests giving a peculiarly mournful aspect to the country where it predominates. The mangrove seems to have a peculiar love for the Florida coast, and many other varieties claim attention, but space forbids.

10.— The prairies form a peculiar feature in the scenery of the United States as they stretch back from the forest belt presenting the appearance of a sargasso sea solidified and covered with herbs and grasses. Fires occurring almost every season during many centuries have restricted the growth of trees with the prairie section to bottom lands and other spots peculiarly protected, but the urgency of nature is not exhausted as wherever of late years protection has been extended over the grassy region, clumps and groves of

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trees spring into being. The water courses of the vast rivers cutting deep into the soil and softer rocks have in most districts preserved enough timber for the use of settlers, and with the advancement of habitation there springs up a much larger natural growth in addition to the plantations incidental to occupation. The absence of trees has of course exercised an influence in reducing the average of rain, and it is noticed that where plantations have increased, rains and running springs have materially progressed.

11.—THE WESTERN SECTION is only about one-half as large as the Eastern. Its elevation above the level of the sea is much greater than that of the remaining two-thirds, and many lofty mountain chains exercise a great power in refrigerating the air at some seasons. In Wyoming, at the South Pass, the mean temperature of the year only reaches to 40°, while many localities in similar latitudes in the east have a mean of 50°. The isothermal line in the Rocky Mountains coincides with the 35th parallel, which in Arkansas and North Carolina shows a mean of 60°, or rather more. The daily variations in this region are astounding to visitors, as it is by no means rare to find the thermometer ranging from 24° at sunrise to 80° at noon or shortly after.

12.—The elevated plateaus of the Cordilleras and the Great Plains possess a drier atmosphere than other parts of the United States. The westerly winds deposit their moisture on the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada so that when they travel over the high lands just mentioned, they are, for all practical purposes, as dry as though they had never drunk up the vapors of the Pacific Ocean. The Great Basin is largely cooled by vaporless winds, but the high crests of the Rocky Mountains procure a thin coating of snow from the little moisture which yet remains. Easterly and northerly winds are found to be the great rain carriers for the plains, so far as they are favored with fluvial visitations. The vegetation is scanty in this arid country, trees being limited to portions of the more elevated

mountains. Wild sage covers much of the land, and there is an efflorescence of alkali which is at first an obstacle to cultivation, but after being well broken, the mineral composition of the soil is not found objectionable. Previous to cultivation the aspect of the country is very unattractive, and travelers find the air unwholesome as well as unpleasant; but after settlement these characteristics disappear in a very great degree. Upon the Great Plains there are found during summer varieties of grass known under the generic name of buffalo grass, which are cured on the ground so that they do not lose their nutritious qualities in drying. Other grasses are now displacing the native grasses with great advantage, and more profitable stock is gradually displacing the herds of bison, deer and antelope, which once roamed at large over those vast plains.

13. — The section extending from the 40th to the 50th parallel, which comprises Idaho, Montana and Washington, is timbered to some extent with firs and pines in considerable variety. Lofty mountain ranges of from 6,000 to 8,000 feet in height are wooded almost to the top with black pines of great height. On the eastern base of the Bitter Root range which is elsewhere known as the Coeur d'Allene Mountains, west of the Bitter Root River, the characteristics change; the country is clothed with almost impenetrable forests, and the streams are confined to narrower beds in the defiles of the mountains. Further to the west, beyond the densely wooded country, the great plain of the Columbia River extends treeless, or almost treeless, and the land presenting the aspects of a troubled sea. Beyond this plain, the Cascade Mountains rise, and almost at their summits forests again appear, which extend to the verge of the Pacific Ocean. Gigantic pines and firs ascend to a height of from 200 to 250 feet in many cases. The best spar and ship timber attainable in the United States can be found in Washington Territory.

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14. — West of the summit line of the Sierra Nevada and the Cascade Mountains is a comparatively narrow belt of country, which extends from the Columbia River to the southern extremity of California, which differs in important particulars from the arid regions of the Cordilleras. Italy, and the countries bordering on the Mediterranean, afford the nearest parallel to the climate of this favored region, which conduces to a vegetation entirely peculiar. The summer is comparatively rainless, and the winters are mild and brief, rather distinguished as rainy seasons than what is known elsewhere as winter. Near the sea the temperature, naturally affected by the body of water, is more uniform than further inland, as the cold current washes the coast from north to south.

15. — Northwesterly winds prevail almost uninterruptedly from November to April, and the overheated valleys give off, rather than absorb, moisture. Southerly and southeasterly winds prevail during the rainy term, and the moisture is taken from them as they pass over the land which, during that season, is colder than the current of moist air. In California and Oregon the coast ranges and low plains are destitute of forests. Near the ocean, pines and oaks are found wherever circumstances favor the retention of moisture; but heavy forests only occur in the higher parts of the Sierra Nevada and the Cascade Mountains, which shut off the winds from the inland region until they have given off their fertilizing burden. The forests are pines in the lower ranges, but beyond an altitude of 2,800 feet, green oaks are found which mix with the pines until an altitude of 4,700 feet above the sea is attained; beyond that point coniferous trees prevail, the gigantic pines, the redwood, and other varieties, whose dimensions astound the beholder.

V. POPULATION.

1. — The Population of the United States, according to the ninth census, taken in 1870, excluding the

Indian tribes, was 38,555,983, and including the redskins, 38,853,217. The number since that enumeration has increased immensely. There are four empires which possess a larger number of inhabitants: The Chinese or Celestial Empire has 477,500,000; the British Empire has 174,200,000; the Russian Empire has 76,500,000, and the German Empire, 40,200,000 inhabitants. The United States, according to the enumeration of 1870, comes next to the German Empire, but it requires no prophet to foresee that, within the current decade, relative positions will be considerably changed. Austria and France have each about 36,000,000, but in France the increase during sixty years from the commencement of this century only amounted to 37 per cent., while the increase of the population of the United States during the same term amounted to 593 per cent. There is no other civilized nation that can compare with France in the paucity of increase, nor with this in the wonderful increase which has been exhibited during the term indicated. The wealth and resources of this country, the boundless regions over which population may extend, not merely for decades, but for centuries, cannot fail to continue the march of progression until this community will exceed the Celestial empire in numbers as much as it now excels that nation in almost every other particular. In the year 1790, our population was 3,929,214, and, from that date to the present, the successive decades have shown increases to 5,308,483; 7,238,881; 9,633,822; 12,866,020; 17,069,453; 23,191,876; 31,443,321; to the latest rendering in 1870, 38,555,983.

2. — There are three efficient causes of progress in population — one by annexation, such as was secured by Germany in the cession of Alsace, by immigration such as that which brings hundreds of thousands every year across the Atlantic to our shores, and natural increase, such as will require no illustration. We have gained but little by annexation, although Louisiana, when purchased from France, had 77,000 inhabi-

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GENERAL WAYNE.

LORD BALTIMORE.

GENERAL GREENE.



BATTLE OF BURNING (OR BURNING) HILL.



LORD BALTIMORE.

JAMES OGLETHORPE.

HENRY HUDSON.



GENERAL GREENE.



HENRY HUDSON.

tants; Florida, 10,000; New Mexico and California, nearly 60,000. Texas and Oregon also brought additions, but mainly consisting of citizens who had gone thither anticipating such action. Immigration, the second factor, has been our main stay, and, as a rule, it brings to us a desirable class of people; more especially has this been noticeable of late years. While the civil war was progressing, the increase from immigration sensibly fell off, but, since that strife came to an end, normal conditions of growth have come once more into operation, and will soon exceed all earlier records, as the intelligent and moneyed classes become more conversant with the opportunities and resources offered by this country. At one time, the underpaid laborer and tradesman, or the evicted cottier from Ireland and Scotland formed the type of the men and women that crossed the Atlantic, but that time passed soon after ocean steamers became established as means of communication, and although the working community is still increased by continuous additions from every European country, commercial and other enterprises, involving the outlay of very considerable capital, bring large numbers in addition, as it were, to officer the army of industry, attracted by the possibility of results hardly to be found in any other country.

3.— When the last census was compiled, there were nearly 10,000,000 foreigners, or immediate descendants of foreigners, in our population, and the extent to which we have been indebted to that factor of development may be gathered from the estimate of natural increase which, in the year 1850, would have given to the Union a population of 22,000,000 souls, supposing that all immigration had ceased at the time of the momentous declaration. When the war of Independence commenced, there were less than three million persons in the combined colonies, and, from that time until 1819, the arrivals from over sea had not exceeded 250,000; but the Passenger act which then came into force, as well as steadily improving facilities for inter-

course, have resulted in a much greater stream since that date; indeed, the numbers arriving between the dates of October 1, 1819, and December 31, 1870, amounted to 7,553,865.

4. — An influx of skilled and unskilled labor so great has, of course, assisted very materially to develop the resources of the country, as every person capable of maintaining himself by honest labor increases the material wealth of the community to which he joins himself, and the condition of our charitable institutions is conclusive evidence that most of those who come are self supporting, at the very lowest estimate. A celebrated German statist has tried to reduce the value of every immigrant to an account in dollars and cents, and between that gentleman and other able authorities, the money value of every fresh arrival is variously stated at from \$1,125 to rather less than \$1,000. In addition to that estimate, it will be borne in mind that most of the men that come bring with them some small contribution of their own earnings toward the wages fund of the community. Massing all these accretions, and assuming \$800 as the money worth of each immigration, the total addition to our wealth from that source comes near to \$6,245,000,000, an amount of money positively astounding.

5. — It cannot fail to be interesting to observe in what proportion the several countries of the old world have contributed to swell our numbers up to the end of December, 1870. England had sent us 515,192; Ireland, 2,700,493; Scotland, 84,623; Wales, 12,485; and from other parts of Great Britain, not specified, 544,107, so that the total from that empire, in all its parts, during the period named, reached the splendid total of 3,857,850, or more than an eighth of the gross total of the population of Great Britain and Ireland in the year 1870, and nearly one half of the whole sum of our increase from immigration during our centennial period. The remainder of our increase comes, for the major part, from the German Empire, of course in-

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unskilled labor so materially to develop every person capable of honest labor increases the community to which he of our charitable institution that most of those the very lowest estimate has tried to reduce an account in dollars of a German and other able, very fresh arrival is to rather less than estimate, it will be borne that come bring with of their own earnings community. Massing \$800 as the money total addition to our year to \$6,245,000,000, astounding

pleasing to observe in countries of the old world numbers up to the end had sent us 515,192; 6,623; Wales, 12,435; Britain, not specified, that empire, in all its reached the splendid an eighth of the gross Britain and Ireland in half of the whole sum on during our century increase comes, for Empire, of course in-

cluding Prussia, which amounts in the gross to 2,363,483, from the best educated population in Europe, and therefore the most enterprising. Austria, under the Hapsburgs, is more drowsy and contented, consequently only 9,398 have wandered across the sea to find "Fresh woods and pastures new," during the same term. Sweden and Norway compare very favorably with Austria, having contributed 153,928 hardy citizens to our muster roll. Denmark has sent us 23,425 from the far north. We have received 31,118 phlegmatic Hollanders, an excellent item to be added to our too excitable community. From the Swiss Cantons we have been enriched by a contingent of 61,572 mountaineers, who have apparently overcome their tendency to nostalgia, so that the majority remain with us. The Kingdom of Belgium has spared us 17,278 of the subjects of Leopold. France, never a colonizing country to any considerable extent, has sent us nearly a quarter of a million, the numbers being 245,812. Spain has not entirely consumed her surplus of people in her Carlist wars of succession, and 23,214 have found their way over the Atlantic to our shores. Portugal, more peaceful and prosperous, has only lost 4,695 by immigration to this country. Italy, the kingdom of Victor Emanuel, including Sicily and Sardinia, his patrimonial possession, has been depleted of 26,786, forming in this nation many nuclei that will not fail to aggregate largely in succeeding decades. Russia, with her immense territory and her restrictive policy, has still lost 4,045 of her people, without counting the 4,038 Poles, who have been in part driven over the sea by her action since Kosciuszko fell. From British America we have attracted 284,491; from Mexico, 20,152; from Central America, 1,064; from the West Indies, 50,250 have come to better quarters than could be found in "the still vexed Bermoothes;" from South America 7,644; from the sunny and beautiful Azores, 6,885; and besides 492,245 from unspecified countries, which help to make up the grand total

of 7,803,865; the Celestial Empire, once entirely closed against western civilization, has opened her ports to emit 109,502 of the countrymen of Ah Sin, immortalized by the genius of Bret Harte in "The Heathen Chinee." The record is certainly interesting to philosophical observers. The population thus received by this country from all the rest of the world has been distributed among the states and territories so that the first named contained 38,113,253, in the year 1870, and the territories 442,730, the increase during ten years having been, in the territories, 183,153, and in the states, 6,929,509. Alabama had, in 1870, 996,992; Arkansas, 484,471; California, 560,244; Connecticut, 537,454; Delaware, 125,015; Florida, 187,748; Georgia, 1,184,109; Illinois, 2,539,891; Indiana, 1,686,637; Iowa, 1,191,702; Kansas, 364,399; Kentucky, 1,321,011; Louisiana, 726,915; Maine, 626,915; Maryland, 780,894; Massachusetts, 1,457,351; Michigan, 1,184,059; Minnesota, 439,706; Mississippi, 827,922; Missouri, 1,721,295; Nebraska, 122,993; Nevada, 42,291; New Hampshire, 318,300; New Jersey, 906,096; New York, 4,382,759; North Carolina, 1,071,361; Ohio, 2,665,260; Oregon, 90,923; Pennsylvania, 3,521,791; Rhode Island, 217,353; South Carolina, 705,606; Tennessee, 1,258,520; Texas, 818,579; Vermont, 330,551; Virginia, 1,225,163; West Virginia, 442,014, and Wisconsin, 1,054,670. The territories cannot be fully stated, as Alaska has never yet been included in an enumeration, but the area of 577,390 square miles has already attracted the attention of a considerable colony from Ireland, and at the end of the present decade will begin to make a showing. Arizona has only been once numbered, when it showed 9,658. Colorado had, in 1870, 39,864; but henceforth that region will be numbered under another head; Dakota had only 14,181; the District of Columbia, 131,700; Idaho, 14,999; Indian Territory, with its area of 71,000 square miles, has yet to be enumerated; Montana, has 20,595; New Mexico, 91,874; Utah, 86,786; Washington, 23,955, and Wyoming,

once entirely closed opened her ports to Ah Sin, immortalized in "The Heathen" interesting to philologists thus received by the world has been territories so that the in the year 1870, and during ten years 153, and in the states, 996,992; Arkansas, 537,454; Connecticut, 537,454; 48; Georgia, 1,184,184; Iowa, 1,686,637; Iowa, 1,321,011; Kentucky, 1,321,011; Maryland, 780,894; Minnesota, 1,184,059; Missouri, 1,721,295; New Hampshire, 91; New York, 4,382,759; 2,665,260; Oregon, Rhode Island, 217, Tennessee, 1,258,520; 51; Virginia, 1,225, Wisconsin, 1,054,670. stated, as Alaska has enumeration, but the already attracted the from Ireland, and will begin to make a once numbered, when in 1870, 39,864; but numbered under another the District of Columbian Territory, with as yet to be enumerated New Mexico, 91,874; 955, and Wyoming,

9,118. Utah would have been a state, in all probability, long since, but for the dominance of Mormonism and its attendant polygamy, which is a difficult problem for the politicians and statesmen of our day.

6.—It will be seen that the rate of increase has been very unequal in the several divisions indicated; thus in Nevada the progression has been more than 500 per cent.; in Nebraska, over 300; in Kansas, 240; and in Minnesota, over 150. In the territories there have been increases of 187 per cent., in Colorado since then become a state; in Utah, 116 per cent., and in Washington, 112 per cent. Coming below these large averages, there are still enormous increments to show, as for instance in Iowa, 77 per cent.; in the District of Columbia, 75; in Oregon, 73; in Michigan, 58; in Illinois, 48; and in California, 471 per cent.; rates of growth which compare very favorably with the older states in which a higher development demands special fitness and capital as conditions precedent to success in life for the mass; because of the greater density of the population with which new comers must compete. The former slave states have only averaged an increase of 17 per cent., although some of them have grown more than 30 per cent., where the soil and the climate have drawn the people in spite of the setoff, which in the future disappears from our record. New England has increased in its several states less than the average of the union because the ground has long been comparatively well covered. Maine has decreased 2 per cent.; South Carolina has fallen off 3 per cent., and New Hampshire, the state of which Daniel Webster said that it was a good location from which to emigrate, has only increased 2 per cent. New Mexico has increased little more than 1 per cent., although the density of its population is small, but many circumstances have tended to postpone the day for an industrial conquest there. Massachusetts, Connecticut and Rhode Island are densely peopled by comparison with the rest of the states, although sparsely occupied by

contrast with other countries, and the increase within their area has only averaged about 18 per cent. in the decade from 1860 to 1870; but their populations average on the three states 154 to the square mile.

7.—The countries which have prospered best as a rule are those in which the population has resulted from a mixture of races. This fact is so well known that it would be a work of supererogation to cite instances. The population which is now being aggregated within the union should consequently possess advantages second to none on the globe, seeing that of the five initial races from which all the nations seem to have been peopled, four are represented in our Great Republic: including the Indian, the Ethiopian, the Mongolian, and the Caucasian or superior race; sometimes described by their tints of complexion as the White, Yellow, Red and Black races. The Indian population cannot be said to be included in our union, properly, as they only, to a very limited extent, embrace the customs and obey the laws of progress. When the last census was taken they numbered 383,712, of which 234,740 were nomadic, scattered over the thinly peopled western territories; 96,366 were living under agencies and upon government reservations, colorably participating in the work of civilization; and 25,731 were living outside tribal relations as broken bands. The Ethiopian race came to the country as semi-British importations before the war of Independence had made us masters of our own destiny, and the legacy of wrong has cost us dearly. Four years after the commencement of our era in 1790, there were 757,843 negroes in the United States, and of that aggregate only 59,446 were free. In the year 1860 there were 487,996 free negroes, and 3,953,760 slaves, making an aggregate of 4,441,756. The census in 1870 showed a total of 4,863,387 free negroes, from nearly the whole of whom the shackles had been stricken by the war which commenced at Fort Sumter. During the decade that preceded the Great Rebellion,

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the increase of that section of our population was a little more than 22 per cent., while the general increase was over 35 per cent.; and while the war progressed and afterwards, the unsettled condition of affairs which depressed the general average to 22.64 per cent., represented the increase of the whole colored population by 9.6 per cent.

8.—In the year 1870 the proportion of colored people to the sum total of our population was as 14½ to 100, but in some cities the preponderance was largely in favor of the negroes, as for instance in Charleston, S. C., where the numbers were 26 black to less than 24 white. The proportion in the several states and territories may be given with advantage, but the whites predominate in every section except in South Carolina and Mississippi. South Carolina had 59 per cent. of negroes; Mississippi, 53; Florida, 48.7; Alabama, 47.7; Georgia, 46; Virginia, 41.9; North Carolina, 36.5; District of Columbia, 33; Texas, 30.9; Arkansas, 27.3; Tennessee, 25.5; Maryland, 22.4; Delaware, 18.2; Kentucky, 16.9; Indian Territory, 9.4; and Missouri, 6.8. In the remainder of the union the proportions are much smaller, as for instance in California, Oregon, Iowa, Vermont, Maine, Wisconsin, Arizona, Colorado, Minnesota, Massachusetts, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, Montana, New Mexico, Utah and Washington Territory there are only small fractions of 1 per cent. In Connecticut there is a little more than 1 per cent.; and the same proportion, bating fractions, applies to Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, New York, Pennsylvania and Wyoming. Louisiana has 5 per cent. Kansas, whose first draft of a state constitution prohibited the presence of a negro, bond or free upon the soil, has a little more than 4 per cent. New Jersey has a little more than 3; West Virginia, 4; and Ohio, Rhode Island, Dakota and Idaho a fraction more than 2 per cent. The prosperity of states may be held to be, as a rule, in the inverse ratio to the preponderance of the colored population, not because of any fault in

that section of the people, but because of the social condition, to which their numbers testify.

9.—Of late years some few Japanese have come into this country as settlers, but they are generally included with other Mongolians under the head Chinese, as their number is small. Chinese are found in no less than twenty-three states. California had 35,565 in the year 1860, but the entire Mongolian immigration only amounted to four per cent. of the total increase from that source of growth. The Chinese do not emigrate as families, nor with the idea that this country shall be their permanent home, as only seven per cent. of the Mongolian stream consists of females, and they are to a very large extent brought over by speculators to the great cities on the Pacific slope, without matrimonial intentions. The highest number of Chinese arriving in the country in any one year was less than 15,000. China is so entirely the engrossing idea with the followers of Con Futzé or Confucius, that those who come to this country under contract, specially provide for the return of their remains to their native country should they die during their term of service. The natural increase of that race in this country can hardly enter into the calculations of the economist for many generations to come, until the stunted and peculiar civilization of the Celestial empire has been abraded.

10.—The Caucasian or White races constitute the bulk of our population, numbering 86.45 per cent. of the bulk, or in all 33,589,857. The Aryan race may be said to comprise the numbers thus given, although some writers make distinctions, more or less valuable, speaking of the Aryans as the Indo Germanic and the Indo European race.

11.—The only Semitic element in the population of the United States is that of the Hebrews, a very valuable contingent among commercial peoples, but their numbers cannot be specified; it is, however, estimated that their total falls below 100,000. The Aryan

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race or races have almost entirely contributed to the substantial progress of this nation, the Germanic and Celtic nationalities prevailing largely.

12.—The Anglo Saxon or English, more particularly, were the first settlers, contributing to our commonwealth their idiosyncrasies, language, laws and institutions so completely that the nation will never cease to show the impress and direction thus given in the imitation of these communities, however various may be the influx from other countries, and however vigorous the growth as among ourselves.

13.—The German element in our population has been a steady influx for many years, except where local circumstances have dulled the taste of the people for more distant enterprise. The wars of the first Napoleon may have been one of the causes that kept down the aggregate of immigration before the year 1819 to 250,000; but since that date, with abatements during the Franco Prussian War, which for a time absorbed all Germany, there has been observable a continuous flow of German peoples towards favored sections of the states. Rural pursuits engross a large proportion of the colonies that come, sometimes sufficiently numerous to sustain in a very large degree the customs of the Fatherland. There are such settlements to be found in Iowa, and in the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia; in Wisconsin; and in Pennsylvania there are many districts in which the language still continues to be spoken by native born American descendants of the original settlers, from the Palatinate. The Hollanders, in whose hands New York city was New Amsterdam, on the Island of Manhattan, settled the southern part of New York state, and the western shore of the Delaware River was colonized by the Swedes.

14.—The Celtic element in our population is very largely Irish, and from the earliest times that contingent of the mass has been considerable. After the establishment of the Prince of Orange on the English

throne, and the defeat of James II at Boyne Water, the flow of Irish emigration this way became large, so that in little more than half a century, ending in 1745, the era of the last attempt of the Stuart pretenders to the English throne, 268,000 persons had come to this country from Ireland. Soon after the Treaty of Versailles had been subscribed, there were systems adopted under which the nationalities of new arrivals were more or less ascertained, and it is calculated that of the 165,000 immigrants that came to this country between 1790 and 1814, a term of twenty-five years, nearly nine-tenths were Irish, and very largely from the south of Ireland. The laboring class in the large manufacturing and commercial centers are mainly Irish, and comparatively few go into the rural districts to engage in agriculture, partly because the thriftless systems of farming which were common in the land of their birth could not endure in competition with the customs of this country.

15.— When the Huguenots were persecuted by the Duke of Guise and his followers in the sixteenth century, many came to this country and formed colonies, and the same fact was noticeable in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when the revocation of the Edict of Nantes disgusted the Protestant element in France, as well as in other times of persecution and spoliation. When Missouri and Louisiana were purchased of the first Napoleon, the population of these regions were almost exclusively French, and there was a large settlement of Frenchmen in South Carolina at a much earlier date. Florida, Texas, California and New Mexico, successively annexed, have added a contingent of Spaniards and Spanish half-breeds, amounting, however, to only a few thousands, still enough to bring up the aggregate of the Romanic nations represented here to respectable numbers. The ancient Slavonic race or nations, represented by Russians, Poles, and some few of the ruder peoples, contribute but little to our mass, and are soon completely merged in the general array.

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16. — The ethnological interest which attaches to the question of the combination of races, which will in the course of years, or rather of generations, evolve a race distinguishably American, makes it worth while to pursue the inquiry, not exhaustively, but for the purpose of directing other intellects to the subject. The materials yet at our disposal are too scanty and rough to allow of conclusive generalization. Since the year 1820 nationality has been specified in the returns as to immigration; before that date estimates only could be made upon loose data. In the year mentioned, 1820, our white population numbered 7,862,166, and since that time our white immigration comes within about half a million of our entire white population in 1870, which was then 33,586,989.

17. — The excess of births over deaths, or natural increase, represents 17,930,000, between the years 1820 and 1870, a term of fifty years. It will not be difficult for any person having a taste in that direction, to divide the increase thus described, among the American white population proper, as shown in the first named year — as the quarter of a million that had in all been drawn by immigration, after the first settlement up to 1820, cannot be a disturbing cause of any magnitude — and the contributions from the various nationalities from which the vast bulk of immigration has come, since that time, so that the numbers pertaining to each section of the mass known as the American people may be credited to their several sources. This subject can be followed to results at once curious and valuable.

VI. INDUSTRIES.

1. — The number of individuals engaged in occupations and receiving payment by wages, commissions and salaries, was in the year 1870, 12,505,993, of which 1,836,288 were females, and 10,669,645 males. The aggregate of persons without recognizable occupations was singularly large, but the number of stu-

dents preparing for professional life, of other persons whose bodily infirmities precluded them from labor, and the too considerable sections included in the pauper and criminal classes, account for nearly the whole of the population between the ages of 16 and 60 years. There were more than nine million females above sixteen years of age who were not stated as engaged in gainful industries, but of that number it is assumed that nearly 7,500,000 were keeping house, many lived upon accumulated properties, others were attending school with or without the prospect of engaging in tuition, some were living at home with their parents and others supported by their sons and daughters, besides which of course a class exists everywhere comprised of paupers, vagrants and worse.

2. — There were according to the census, very nearly six millions of persons engaged in agriculture in 1870, including 2,977,711 farmers and planters; 2,885,996 agricultural laborers; 81,435 gardeners and nurserymen; 6,588 stock raisers, and 5,590 herdsmen employed by raisers of stock.

3. — Professional and Personal Services employ 2,684,793 persons, divided into upwards of seventy distinct occupations; embracing 1,031,666 laborers, whose avocations could not be more particularly described, and 975,734 domestic servants, of whom more than 100,000 were males. The returns show that about one family in eight in the United States employ female help. Of the whole number of servants the majority claimed to be American born; 145,956 were Irish; 42,866 were German; 14,878 were British American; 12,531 English; 5,420 Chinese, leaving 728,180 as of American nativity. The other several occupations such as hairdressers and barbers, boarding house keepers, hotel keepers, restaurateurs, clerks and employes in hotels and other such places of entertainment, clerks in government offices, and laundresses with their employes amount in the aggregate to 210,997. There were authors and lecturers, 458, and

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608 chemists; 164 metallurgists; 43,874 clergymen;
7,839 dentists; 4,703 civil engineers; 5,286 journalists;
2,671 land surveyors; 40,736 naturalists; 62,383 sur-
geons and physicians, and 1,169 veterinary surgeons.
The fine arts had about six thousand persons engaged
in their diffusion, including 2,017 architects; 934 de-
signers and draughtsmen; 775 painters; 250 sculptors,
and 2,948 artists, who were not more particular in
their description than that word implies. The class of
teachers amounted to 136,570, of whom 9,491 devoted
their attention to music; 149 to dancing; 108 to draw-
ing and painting, the rest being engaged in general
tuition.

4.—Trade and Transportation necessarily include
the great commercial class throughout the community,
aggregating nearly twelve hundred thousand. Bank-
ers and brokers number 14,362, and their official and
clerical staff amounted to 10,265; the railroad enter-
prise of the country at that time employed 163,303
persons, and the electric telegraph, 8,579, besides
which the various express companies employ 9,396.
Traders and dealers numbered 1,262,268; their clerks,
222,504; their bookkeepers and accountants, 31,177;
their commercial travelers, 7,262, and their sales clerks,
14,203. There were 56,663 sailors; 21,332 boatmen
and watermen; 7,338 canalmen; 7,975 men and women
employed on steamboats, and 3,567 persons engaged in
the freight and shipping business.

5.—Manufactures, Mechanical Pursuits and Mining
in their several departments, employed in 1870,
2,707,421 persons, including carpenters, 344,596; boot
and shoemakers, 171,127; tailors and seamstresses,
161,820; miners, 152,107; blacksmiths, 141,714; cot-
ton mill operatives, 111,606; woolen mill operatives,
58,836; mill and factory operatives who did not speci-
fy their particular employments, 41,619; masons,
80,710; painters and varnishers, 85,123; printers,
39,860, and manufacturers, 42,877, showing an aggre-
gate of immense value to the commonwealth.

VII. EDUCATION.

1. — SCHOOLS have always been recognized in this country as part of the great means most to be desired for the amelioration of human conditions. The great University at Harvard was founded by the early settlers in Massachusetts only twenty years after their arduous career was begun on this continent, and long before that era schools, simple but effective, had been in operation to secure for the children of the Pilgrims those advantages which had been so well used by their sires. Schooling and mental culture of a tolerably severe order prevailed in all the colonies to some extent, and other colleges soon followed upon the establishment of Harvard, so that even at the very beginning mind was revered as the best gift of Heaven. The amount of money expended by individuals and by the community at large in this country challenges favorable comparison with like outlays for school purposes in the several grades in any other country in the world. The number and value of our school buildings and the means providing in such establishments for the culture of youth are not excelled even if equalled anywhere. During the year 1871, there were benefactions from private citizens to the several educational establishments of the country amounting in all to \$8,592,000. Such gifts have little value by comparison with the munificent endowments of some of the foundation schools in Europe, but when it is borne in mind that such donations are afforded from the benevolence of the living generation, and that they can never fail to provoke emulation, it will be seen that the future of our school system is munificently cared for.

2. — New England first originated a general system of education, substituting method on a large scale for the somewhat spasmodic efforts of individuals, and while the colonies were yet in their childhood, provision was made in the year 1628, for the proper schooling of every child in the settlements. Nine years later

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orders were made that there should be a school for every fifty families, and for every hundred families provision for a school for higher instruction. Taxes raised in each district supported these establishments, and the system, with few modifications, may now be seen operating throughout the union. The governments of Monarchical Europe have ministers of instruction whose work it is to supervise more or less immediately, the school systems under their charge, but in this country every state provides its own facilities and regulates the mechanism by which efficiency appears most likely to be secured; the federal government has no voice in the management. Congress has munificently aided the pursuit of mental culture, by reserving 640 acres of land in every township of the public domain to form an endowment for schools, so that twelve million acres are now being applied for educational purposes. Permanent school funds have also accumulated in many of the older states, but direct taxation is the customary means resorted to for school support, and with few exceptions, the assessment is cheerfully met.

3. — The Common Schools give elementary training merely, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, geography and history, so far as to afford an outline merely, of the history of the United States. Schools of a higher grade, both public and private, are however within the reach of all classes, in country districts as well as in cities, and by such means grammar schools, high schools and institutions secondary to the greater collegiate establishments give to the rising youth facilities to acquire Latin, German, French, mathematics, and the rudiments of natural science. Normal Schools for the training of teachers are provided in almost every state and in most of the advanced territories. There were one hundred and ten normal schools in the states in 1871, Texas and Nevada being the only exceptions to the rule that every state should supply normal instruction. Illinois has nine normal schools,

New York has ten, Ohio nine, Pennsylvania eight, Massachusetts seven, Missouri six, and West Virginia and Wisconsin five each.

4.—The number of Colleges and Universities in the Union is the greatest that can be found in any country in the world, and usually the facilities are well nigh perfect for imparting classical, professional, and scientific training. There were in 1871 no less than 372 colleges, capable of conferring academic degrees, 56 scientific and agricultural schools, 40 law schools, 117 theological seminaries, 94 medical, pharmaceutical and dental schools, 136 colleges for women, besides business colleges and commercial academies to the number of 84. Many of the commercial colleges are doubtless limited affairs, and some of the other establishments are more ambitious of the name than capable of the work of the true college, but after making all such deductions there remains a large aggregate of capacity for the training of manhood and womanhood, which will yet attain still greater scope and means of usefulness. Many of the institutions now in operation in this country have been munificently endowed, and will compare, if not for wealth and antiquity, yet in every other way, with the oldest and best institutions that contribute toward the education of youth in Europe. Yale, Harvard and Princeton Universities are cases in point, to which may be added Columbia College in New York and the State University of Michigan. America is proud of such institutions, and visitors from all parts of the world admit their excellence. It would be well for us undoubtedly to limit the number of our establishments for the higher walks of culture, and to concentrate the means at our disposal upon a few, so that every desirable facility might be afforded therein, instead of diffusing immense sums of money in the erection of innumerable buildings, which are afterwards but partially sustained for want of sufficient capital. Lately this tendency has become more marked, and

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many of the more munificent of our citizens who propose to devote part of their surplus wealth to mental training, will render more effective service by bestowing additional endowments upon the colleges and universities now in action than by assisting to establish new schools for the coming generation. Where this idea is not acceptable, it is of course well that the best that can be done may be, but in most cases the men and women who wish to give their aid toward the highest culture are quite willing to take counsel as to the best means.

5.—HARVARD COLLEGE has precedence as the oldest of all the collegiate institutions in the United States, as it was founded in 1636. The academical department includes regular courses of religion, philosophy, rhetoric, oratory, history, languages, ancient and modern, living and dead, natural history, physiology, chemistry and mineralogy, physics and mathematics. There is also a divinity school, a law school, a medical school, the Lawrence scientific school, which prepares the student for mining, engineering and practical geology, a school of astronomy and a dental school. There were 76 professors and 643 students in Harvard College in 1871, and the position of the establishment in Cambridge, near to Boston, favors the largest measure of success. The library at Harvard is large and valuable and now draws near to 200,000 volumes, some of which are extremely rare works. Yale College, in New Haven, Conn., is younger than Harvard by sixty-two years, but it is very efficient. The course of training there offered is assisted and varied by an academical department much like that at Harvard; by the Sheffield Scientific School; a theological department; a law department; a medical department, and a School of the Fine Arts. There were 68 professors in 1871, and 840 students. The library at Yale amounts in the aggregate to 100,000 volumes, and there are in addition valuable collections for students in botany and zoology, an observatory for as-

tronomical purposes, and a first-class chemical laboratory such as few such institutions in any part of the world can excel.

6. — Columbia College, New York, was founded in 1754, consequently it is now approaching the completion of the first quarter of its second century. The college is well endowed, and it includes a school of letters and science, a school of mines, and a law school. There were in 1871 three hundred students and thirty-four professors, besides which the college of physicians and surgeons in New York city, with 326 students and 28 professors, form part of the beneficent machinery for culture offered to the young men of the present age by Columbia College. In the year 1871 there were 111 colleges, which numbered ten or more than ten professors and teachers in each in the union, but as will be seen it would be impracticable to give a detailed notice of so many institutions without fatiguing the reader. There are sixteen institutions, with thirty or more than thirty teachers in each, and seven with more than forty. Ann Arbor, Michigan, has 57, the Cornell University has 48, in Ithaca, New York, and the University of Pennsylvania has fifty-four.

7. — Agricultural Colleges and scientific schools numbered 68 in 1871, and the work being done by such establishments is already considerable, but it begins to dawn upon the minds of their promoters that a much wider field of usefulness lies before them when the school is made more entirely practical, so that the work of the farm, the handling of first-class machinery, and the teaching of the laboratory can always run together in experimental philosophy, which will fortify the agriculturist of the immediate future for the grand enterprises which await him, while preparing his mind in other respects for the tasks which citizenship must more and more impose upon the tillers of the soil. Many of the colleges which have been established to assist in diffusing a

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work, was founded in the nineteenth century. The institution includes a school of medicine, and a law school. It has thirty students and thirty professors. The college of physics is at New York city, with 326 students. It is the beneficent work of the young men of the city. In the year 1871 it numbered ten or more in each in the union, and it is practicable to give a liberal education without fatigues. There are sixteen institutions, with thirty teachers in each, and at Ann Arbor, Michigan, there are 48, in Ithaca, New York, and in Pennsylvania has fifty-

and scientific schools. The work being done by these is considerable, but it is not their promoters that they less lies before them. It is entirely practical, so that the handling of first-class work of the laboratory can be a part of the experimental philosophy, and the student is a part of the immediate work which await him, and other respects for the more and more impose. Many of the colleges do assist in diffusing a

knowledge of the art and science of agriculture, have been associated with other colleges and universities, but many stand alone. Twenty-four institutions have been aided by the general government, by means of land grants from the public domain, and in that number there are 180 professors and more than 2,000 students.

8.—The Federal Government maintains two schools specially devoted to the art of war, the U. S. Military Academy and the U. S. Naval Academy. The West Point Academy has given to us a well qualified class of men whose military talents and whose courage have alike been proven during the most sanguinary struggle that the world has perhaps ever seen, but concerning that matter we shall have occasion to speak in another place. West Point, as our readers cannot fail to know, is on the Hudson River, surrounded by a beautiful country, such as can hardly be surpassed for quiet and majestic charms. The school dates from 1802, and nearly all the officers in the regular army have owed their training to that institution. The control of the establishment devolves upon a superintendent and his staff, consisting of an adjutant quartermaster, treasurer, surgeon, and two assistant surgeons. The superintendent is almost invariably a military officer of high rank, and the appointment confers distinction. The academic staff is distinct from the military staff already indicated, and it consists of a commandant of cadets, eight professors and thirty-one assistant professors and instructors in the several branches of study involved. Instruction in tactics is given by the commandant of cadets. The number of pupils is limited to 227, and the discipline enforced is very strict. The course of training is as nearly as possible complete, and it embraces military tactics, engineering, natural and experimental philosophy, mathematics, drawing, chemistry, mineralogy and geology, ethics and law, the French and Spanish languages, ordnance and gunnery. There is always great competition for the honor of an ap-

pointment to the academy, and candidates must pass a preliminary examination in reading, writing, elementary arithmetic, English grammar, geography, and the history of this country. Besides passing creditably through such an examination, there are limitations as to age, as the candidate must not be less than seventeen nor more than twenty-two years of age at the time of admission. The academy in which young men are trained for the Navy is at Annapolis, Maryland; and primarily the management is vested in a superintendent and eight naval officer assistants. The staff of professors is very strong, as it consists of sixty-seven duly qualified teachers, competent to give instruction in seamanship, steam engineering, mathematics, astronomy and navigation, natural philosophy, drawing, ethics and English literature, and the French and Spanish languages. The limitation as to age is lower in the naval academy at Annapolis than in the military school at West Point, as candidates must not exceed eighteen years of age, and must be over fourteen. The number is limited to 253 at present, and an examination similar to that already mentioned, which must be passed at West Point, is also a *sine qua non* at Annapolis. The value of such institutions cannot be overrated, and it is matter for congratulation that the youth of to-day highly value the advantages offered.

9.—Many circumstances conspire to keep down the average of education in this country, in spite of the immense outlays undertaken by individuals and communities to diffuse the blessings of thorough training. Nearly 15 per cent. of the whole population can neither read nor write, the number of such unfortunates above the age of ten years being 5,568,144. In the slave states, for many years before the Great Rebellion, the labors of the schoolmaster were entirely forbidden among the colored population, and among the lower class of whites there was little ambition for culture. Add to that unfortunate fact the well-known circumstance that a large proportion of the immigra-

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tion that comes to these shores is from countries and from classes in which sound instruction and competent training are the exception rather than the rule. Italy, France, and even England, are less happily placed than our own country in this respect, as their proportion of illiterates is much larger, while of course there is not in either of the countries named the same excuse to be made on the score of a recent enfranchisement of nearly five millions of an oppressed race; or that a large stream of immigration depresses the general average. Still there is a residue of ignorance and neglect, that cannot be accounted for among ourselves in either of the ways named, and every intellectual and patriotic American will see therein the necessity for wider and more continuous effort. There are some states in which elementary schools are not sufficiently numerous to meet the wants of the community, and there are localities and classes in which scarcely anything less than the strong arm of the law will suffice to bring within the discipline of the school those youths for whom training is most wanted. It is claimed by some persons, whose opinions are worthy of grave consideration, that the low rates of remuneration afforded to school teachers of both sexes have an effect in dulling the avidity of youth for proper culture, inasmuch as it betrays a want of practical appreciation for the fruits of study, in a peculiarly practical age. Space will not permit a thorough discussion of the question here, but much could be said in favor of the proposition. The southern states are still far behind other parts of the Union in providing school accommodations, and the scattered population in new territories cannot possibly give as much attention to such matters as the important duty demands. Some portions of the country have framed enactments to compel attendance at school, and although, at the first glance, such regulations seem antagonistic to the genius of our institutions, the interests of the nation at large and of the individuals immediately concerned must override all sentimental scruples.

10.—The areas of illiteracy may almost be said to be geographical. From Chesapeake Bay, a line drawn through the Carolinas, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, southern Arkansas and Texas, would inclose an area in which the number of those who are unable to read and write ranges from twenty to sixty per cent., and, in some considerable stretches of country, more than sixty per cent. are unable to read and write their own names. The northern parts of the New England States, central New York, northern Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, southern Michigan and nearly the whole of Iowa, show an immense population in which barely five per cent. fail to read and write. The balance of the states north of the Missouri and Ohio Rivers vary in their returns from five per cent. of illiterates to twenty. The causes which account for the variations now pointed out, would permit of ample elucidation did space allow. The facts are entirely beyond question.

11.—Books constitute the university always open to the adult whose mind has been cultivated up to the point of being able to appreciate their value, and all things considered, there is no nation perhaps to be found that has within the same brief period so largely increased its public and private collections of books in proportion to its native born population. Americans are readers, in the northern and western states more particularly, and in almost every household, however limited, the works of some far popular authors may be found. When the last census was compiled in 1870, there were found to be 108,800 libraries in private hands, with an aggregate of 28,072,420 volumes, and the public libraries numbered 56,015, with 19,459,518 volumes, the gross total being 45,528,938 books in 164,815 libraries; but that statement, large as it may seem, falls far below the truth. The value of books published, and the excellence observable in some editions of the best works, cannot be enjoyed by the ordinary reader of the poorer class except by

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means of public libraries, in which such aids to good taste, sound erudition and developed intellect are made available to all comers. The incompetency of some of the officials engaged in collecting the census, rendered the returns necessarily untrue as to some localities. The deputy marshal for the state of Connecticut gave no returns as to private libraries, and of course that state would, if the documentary evidence were taken as conclusive, occupy a very low status among the other states of the union. It is assumed, apparently on good grounds, that the congressional library in Washington, which in 1870 contained 190,000 volumes, is the largest collection of books on this continent. Pennsylvania had in all her libraries, public and private, so far as returns were procured, 6,447,840 volumes; New York, 6,310,302; Ohio, 3,687,363; Illinois, 3,823,914; Massachusetts, 3,017,813; Michigan, 2,174,744; Kentucky, 1,909,230; Maryland, 1,713,483; Indiana, 1,125,553; and in the state of Missouri, 1,065,638. Several of the states made returns showing less than 1,000,000, but more than 500,000 volumes; it is however probable that the statement is below the fact in many instances: Wisconsin, Vermont, Tennessee, Rhode Island, North Carolina, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Louisiana, Alabama, Iowa, and the District of Columbia. With reference to the last named district, the congressional library of 190,000 volumes may be taken as some evidence that the return could be somewhat varied, with an approach to truth. Wyoming and Arizona, with their sparse populations, have less than three thousand volumes in all libraries, public and private, so far as could be ascertained. The returns are of course partial.

12.—It has been estimated that the United States of America print and issue a larger number of newspapers than all the rest of the world put together, and although some of the publications named scarcely deserve to rank with the broadsheets published in the

metropolitan cities, they yet supply a want in the community, and in some degree, even in the worst cases help to sustain the intellectual tone of the public. In the year 1870, the census shows that there were 5,871 newspapers and periodicals issuing no less than 1,508,548,250 copies per annum, with a circulation of 20,842,475. Forty numbers were thus published during the year for every individual, assuming that the distribution was evenly made; but of course that was not the fact; and every 6,800 of the population of the union could be provided with one newspaper and one magazine. Daily papers then published amounted to 574; tri-weeklies, to 107; semi-weeklies, to 115; weeklies, to 4,295; semi-monthlies, to 95; monthlies, to 622; bi-monthlies, to 13; and quarterlies, to 49. The vast majority of all the several issues discussed the political issues of the day, taking sides, the actual number being 4,333; nearly one hundred make a speciality of agriculture; over eighty are devoted to benevolent and secret organizations; 142 are commercial and financial organs; over 500 are illustrated papers, more or less devoted to literary culture; over 400 are religious; 207 are technical and professional; 6 are sporting publications, and 79 contained advertisements only. It will be seen that a wide range of tastes must be consulted in the successful management of so many publications.

VIII. GOVERNMENT.

1.—A Commonwealth of Republican Commonwealths is the nearest approach to a brief description of the federal government of the United States; democracy in its broadest sense, the rule of the people, being the bases of the superstructure. Although the Declaration of Independence only dates from July 4, 1776, the government under which we now live had been informally begun in May, 1775, when a congress assembled in Philadelphia to consider and take action upon the oppressive policy that had been inaugurated

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by Great Britain. The will of the colonists had already been pronounced in favor of home rule and against arbitrary levies and exactions by the British Parliament, although there were hopes that the representations made and to be made by the agent of the colonies would result in a peaceful accommodation of all difficulties. The foolish obstinacy of King George III proved all such hopes fallacious, and the war of independence which followed the world famous declaration vindicated the rights of the people to erect on these shores the free states which now afford refuge against tyranny to all mankind. The Articles of Confederation were agreed to November 15, 1777, but a delay of more than three years elapsed before the states unanimously accorded their approval of the action taken by congress. There was a fundamental error in the articles, as the federal power was not armed with authority to enforce its decrees whenever the states, or any one of them, in their sovereign capacity assumed to be inherent in all relations should refuse obedience. As against individuals, each commonwealth had power within its own dominion, but the same rule did not apply with like rigor in the larger commonwealth in which sovereign states became individuals. This defect had to be amended, in that union and strength should be realized, as otherwise the confederation must be little other than a rope of sand, unless under unfavorable circumstances, the arm of military force, invoked to uphold federal authority, might have changed the whole fabric into a despotism wielded by an unscrupulous ruler for a time. So much had been suffered from authority, that the first essay towards self government erred on the side of weakening the central focus to an extent inconsistent with the common safety. To remedy this cardinal mistake, a convention assembled in Philadelphia in May, 1787, in which all the states except Rhode Island were represented by delegates, and after several months of careful consideration, the articles

were revised and amended, subject to the approval of the several states. The amendments then made brought into operation the constitution of the United States which is now in force. Every state in due course convened by delegates to consider the amendments submitted, and more than twelve months passed before the changes received the ratification of so many states as sufficed to sustain the amendments, and very nearly three years passed before unanimous ratification had been accorded, giving to the work of the convention of 1787, the force of law throughout the union. The alterations thus agreed to were in every sense beneficent.

2.—As originally framed, the Constitution contained seven articles, which determined the relations of the federal government to the governments of the several states, and each to the other, but it was thought unnecessary or inexpedient at first to deal with the rights of individuals in the several states under the general articles named. Amendments from one to fifteen have since been found necessary at different epochs, nearly all of which have aimed in a greater or less degree at the definition of personal rights and the protection of individuals or classes. According to the constitution, the government is made up of three branches: the Legislative, the Judiciary and the Executive.

3.—THE LEGISLATIVE BRANCH. This power is vested in Congress, and the limitations are broadly stated thus in the constitution: "The power to make all laws necessary and proper for carrying into execution all powers vested in the government or in any department or officer thereof." The powers thus exercised are the levying and collection of taxes and duties with due regard to equality and uniformity throughout the United States; the procurement of loans on the credit of the union whenever necessary; the regulation of commerce between the several states and foreign nations; the establishment of uniform laws as

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to naturalization applicable to all the states; placing
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coining money and establishing standards of weight
and measure; establishing postoffices and roads for
the conveyance of mails; declaring war and granting
letters of marque against any power against which
war shall have been declared; to raise and maintain
armies and a navy, and to establish laws for their
proper government; to provide, as necessity may
arise, for organizing, arming and disciplining the
militia, and to govern such portions thereof as may be
called into the service of the United States; besides
which the general government exercises an exclusive
power and legislative control over the district in
which the seat of government is located, and over
such places and properties as the general government
may acquire by purchase or otherwise for the erection
of dock yards, arsenals and forts.

4.—The powers of Congress are limited by consti-
tutional restrictions which may be thus briefly stated:
The privilege of *habeas corpus*, which secures the pri-
vate citizen against arbitrary imprisonment without ex-
amination and trial before the constituted authorities
shall not be suspended unless under extreme cir-
cumstances, when the public safety may seem to de-
mand such action in times of rebellion, or in case of
invasion; Congress cannot pass a bill of attainder,
nor any *ex post facto* law; nor levy a capitation or other
direct tax unless the same be proportioned to the enu-
meration by the official census then in force; no pref-
erence can be given by Congress to the port or ports
of one state over the port or ports of any other
state in the Union, nor can vessels trading between
the different states be made to pay duties as between
those states; Congress cannot draw money from the
treasury otherwise than by acts of appropriation ac-
cording to the forms prescribed by law; nor can any
law be made having for its purpose the establishment
of one form of religion, or the prohibition of the exer-

cise of any religion, or the abridgment of free speech, or the limitation of the freedom of the press, or to restrict the right of the people to assemble peaceably to petition the government for the redress of grievances; Congress may not question the validity of the public debt, duly authorized by law, and under that head comes also the payment of pensions and bounties promised by the general government; besides which several limitations, neither the United States collectively nor any state shall pay any debt incurred to aid an insurrection or rebellion against the general authority, nor any claim for the loss of a slave or slaves, or for his or their emancipation.

5. — The Senate is one house of the two that compose Congress, and it is formed by the election of two Senators for each state, who are chosen for terms of six years by the state legislatures. A Senator must have attained the age of thirty years, and have been a citizen of the United States at least nine years at the time of his being chosen; he must be a resident in the state for which he is selected to serve. The sole power to try impeachments is vested in the Senate, which, when sitting in the discharge of that function, is under oath in the same manner as any other court of justice, being in that respect the highest court in the land. Should the President be tried, then the Chief Justice of the United States must be the presiding officer on that occasion. The power to ratify and to reject any and all treaties with foreign powers is vested in the Senate, and the concurrence of two-thirds of all the Senators present is necessary to authorize the President to make a treaty. The appointments made by the Chief Executive are subject to the advice and consent of the Senate. Bills for the purpose of raising revenue cannot be originated in the Senate, but when any such bill shall have come into the possession of the Senate, it may concur therein, or propose any amendments. By virtue of his office, the Vice President of the United States is president of the Senate,

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of the two that comply the election of two chosen for terms of years. A Senator must years, and have been at least nine years at the time he be a resident in the state. The sole power is vested in the Senate, which, in that function, is under no other court of justice, but the Chief Justice of the United States presiding officer on the bench, and to reject any nomination is vested in the Senate, two-thirds of all the members to authorize the President to make appointments made by the President to the advice and consent of the Senate, but when the President is in the possession of the office, or propose any office, the Vice President of the Senate,

and in his absence the Senate shall elect a temporary presiding officer. The Senate also appoints a secretary to record its proceedings, a sergeant at arms to carry out the will of the body, and to arrest offenders, and a doorkeeper to prevent unlawful intrusion upon its deliberations.

6.—The House of Representatives is the second body, and it has powers coordinate in most respects with the Senate. Its members are chosen by the direct vote of the people, in the several states, every second year, according to the population in each state, as set forth in the census last obtained. The whole number of representatives to which a state is entitled being determined by Congress after each decade shall have expired, the local distribution of the representatives devolves upon the several states. A candidate to be eligible for election must have attained the age of twenty-five years, and must be a citizen and a resident in the state for which he is elected. The house must choose its own speaker, clerk, sergeant at arms, doorkeeper, and other officers. In this House is vested the exclusive right to originate bills having for their object the levy of a tax or duties; the power of the purse is thus held by the representatives of the people. Legislative and advisory duties properly devolve upon Congress, the judicial and executive functions are elsewhere imposed, but as we have seen, one chamber may be constituted a High Court for the trial of offenders against the United States, under the process of impeachment; a power seldom called into requisition.

7.—THE JUDICIAL BRANCH. This power consists of the Supreme Court and such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and appoint. All cases of law and equity arising under the constitution, under the laws of the United States, and under treaties made by the authority of the United States, come under the jurisdiction of this branch, as also all cases which affect ambassadors or other public ministers and consuls; cases of maritime jurisdiction and admiralty causes

generally pertain to the Supreme Court, and all controversies to which the United States may become a party; questions of law between two or more states, or between citizens of different states, or between citizens of the same state who may claim lands under grants from other states, or as between a citizen and the state in which he resides, or any foreign state.

8. — Where ambassadors or other public ministers and consuls are affected, and in any case in which the state may be a party, the Supreme Court may exercise original jurisdiction; but in other cases such as have been specified, the court has appellate jurisdiction only, both as to fact and law, subject to such exceptions as may be made by Congress.

9. — The Supreme Court is, as its name implies, the highest judicial tribunal in the United States. The court is composed of a Chief Justice and eight Associate Justices, who hold their offices for life or during good behavior. The Chief Justice presides in his court and regulates the order in which business shall be transacted, controlling the docket and assigning to the Associate Justices the cases in which they shall prepare opinions.

10. — There are nine Judicial Circuits in the United States, and a Circuit Court must be held twice every year in each state within the circuit, by a justice of the Supreme Court duly assigned to that duty, and by the District Judge of the state or district in which said court is held.

11. — Original and appellate jurisdiction are alike vested in the Circuit Courts, which have concurrent jurisdiction with the state courts when the matter in dispute exceeds in money value \$500, and the United States is a plaintiff, or where an alien is a party, or where the controversy arises between citizens of different states. In all cases of crime against the United States, such courts have exclusive jurisdiction, unless the law expressly confers the power upon other courts. In all admiralty cases, and in most of the cases arising

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under the custom laws and in bankruptcy, the district
courts have original jurisdiction.

12. — Claims against the government prior to the
year 1856 could only be dealt with by petition to Con-
gress, and the process was so unsatisfactory that the
court of claims was established at the date mentioned,
and under its jurisdiction come all questions as to
demands upon the government which the regular de-
partments refuse or fail to satisfy. The court consists
of five Judges appointed by the President, subject to
the advice and consent of the senate, and they hold
their places like the Justices of the Supreme Court, for
life or during good behavior. Before this court comes
or may come every claim founded upon a law of Con-
gress, or arising out of the regulations of an executive
department, or under contracts implied or expressed,
and of counterclaims by the government. In all mat-
ters and suits the Attorney General and his two assist-
ants and the Solicitor General represent the govern-
ment. The advantage of such modes of investigation
for the public in general over Congressional manipu-
lation must be immediately visible.

13. — THE EXECUTIVE. This power is vested in
the President, who is chosen by electors from the sev-
eral states, and his term of office is four years. Every
state is entitled to as many electors as it has senators
and representatives in Congress. The Vice President
who is *ex-officio* President of the senate, and who in
certain events may become President of the United
States, is chosen in a similar manner at the same time
with the President. The Chief Executive and the
Vice President must be native born citizens of the
United States, residing within the states fourteen years,
and the Constitution further demands that they shall
have attained the age of thirty-five years.

14. — The President is Commander-in-chief of the
armies and navy of the United States, and of the mili-
tia forces of the several states whenever such forces
are called into the general service. The pardoning

power of the President suffices in all offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment. The President has power to make treaties with foreign powers, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, provided that two-thirds of the number of senators present when such question may arise concur in such action. Subject to similar advice and consent, the President nominates all the officers of government: ambassadors, public ministers, consuls, justices of the Supreme Court, and all executive officials, except such as are expressly provided for otherwise by the Constitution. The President receives the Ministers from foreign powers, and it devolves upon him to grant the *exequatur* to foreign Consuls. The President communicates by message with Congress at the opening of every session, setting forth the condition of the country, and recommending such action as he may deem expedient.

15.—The power to veto a bill or measure is not absolute in the hands of the President. Every order, vote or bill, in which the two houses of Congress may have concurred, except only a resolution to adjourn, must be presented to the President for his approval and signature. Should that form be complied with the bill becomes law, but the power of the veto may be exerted by returning the measure unsigned to the house in which it originated, with a statement in writing of the President's objections, and the reasons why he thinks it should not become law. That is the extent of his authority in that direction; as in the event of Congress reaffirming the bill by a two-thirds majority, it becomes an act and is law thenceforth. The constitution holds the President responsible for the faithful execution of the laws, and in the discharge of his onerous duties he is assisted by the highest executive officers, who compose his Cabinet. The Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Secretary of the Interior, the Postmaster General and the Attorney

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General constitute the Cabinet. They are the consti-
tutional advisers of the President on questions of policy,
and as to the executive duties of the federal govern-
ment without as well as within their several depart-
ments. The meetings of the Cabinet may be held at
any time most convenient to the President and mem-
bers; but usually the Cabinet assembles twice in every
week for consultation. The President is not bound by
the advice that may be offered to him.

16.—THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE. This branch
of the executive power was created by a law passed in
July 1789, and next to the President the Secretary of
State is the highest officer in the executive. The for-
eign office in the several states in Europe corresponds
with the functions of this department, and the Secre-
tary of State is, from their point of view, our minister
of foreign affairs. He holds intercourse with duly
accredited ambassadors and ministers from foreign
governments, and conducts all official correspondence
with them; instructions for our own ministers and
consuls abroad are prepared and issued by him; and
all regulations as to the dispatch and proper record of
their business are subject to his control. They must
report through him, and he submits to Congress all
communications of value, and whatever information
can be collected as to commercial affairs through min-
isters and consuls, or by any other means. The acts
of Congress, when duly enrolled, after they have be-
come law, must be promulgated by the Secretary of
State. When civil commissions have been signed by
the President, the Secretary of State must append
thereto the seal of the United States. Two assistant
secretaries perform such duties as he may prescribe for
them in the fulfillment of the law. He has also under
his immediate control the Disbursing Agent, who has
charge of the funds and accounts of the department;
the Translator, who translates such foreign documents
as may be required by the department; the Clerk of
Appointments and Commissions, whose duty it is to

make out commissions and keep their record, as well as nominations to the Senate, *exequators*, and all such documents; the charge of the department library is vested in this officer. The Clerk of Rolls and Archives is one of the staff, properly speaking, of the Secretary of State. He has charge of the enrolled acts of Congress, as they come from the President, and it is his duty to prepare copies of such acts, as well as to superintend their publication, together with all treaties. This officer has charge of treaties with the Indian tribes. Last of the principal officers in the staff of the Secretary of State is the Clerk of Authentication, who has custody of the seals of the United States and of the department, and whose duty it is to certify and authenticate documents, receive official fees, and render a due account thereof, and keep a record of all letters, except those which belong to the consular and diplomatic service.

17.—The Diplomatic Service, as we have seen, is controlled through the department of the Secretary of State. Diplomatic Agents rank as Envoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary to England, Germany, France, Russia, Spain, Austria, Italy, China, Mexico, Brazil, Chili and Peru. Next to these come Ministers Resident, such as represent the United States in Denmark, Sweden and Norway, the Netherlands, Belgium, Portugal, Switzerland, the Hawaiian Islands, Hayti, Turkey, Greece, Japan, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Salvador, New Granada, Venezuela, Ecuador, the Argentine Republic, Bolivia, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Liberia. Where a Minister Plenipotentiary or a Minister Resident represents the United States, Secretaries of Legation are also authorized, and for London and Paris there are also assistant secretaries. Consuls reside in foreign countries as duly authorized public agents, charged to watch over the commercial interests of citizens. Such officers are usually located in important cities and at seaports. There are about seventy-five such agents customarily engaged in the line of duty indicated.

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18. — THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT. This branch of the public service is presided over by the Secretary of the Treasury, whose duties embrace an efficient supervision of all fiscal affairs and the financial operations of the government, as well as the execution of laws affecting navigation and commerce; the due survey of the coast in the interests of public safety, and the establishment and control of lighthouses wherever necessary; the maintenance of the Marine Hospital of the United States, and the construction and maintenance of public buildings for custom houses and other purposes. There are several bureaus in the department, under responsible chiefs, who are subordinate to the Secretary.

19. — The Subordinate Chiefs of the several bureaus in the department of the treasury are the First Controller, who prescribes the modes in which the accounts of the civil service, the diplomatic service, and the public lands, shall be kept and rendered; the Second Controller has under his charge the accounts of the army and navy and the Indian Bureau. There are six auditors in the department whose business it is to hold the scales fairly between the United States and individuals. In the hands of the first are placed the accounts of the customs and the revenue, together with the appropriations and expenditures of the civil list; and it is his duty to report the balances arrived at, to the First Controller and to the Commissioner of Customs. The second takes charge of all accounts in relation to the pay and clothing and recruiting of the army, as well as those in connection with the Indian Department. This officer reports his balances to the Second Controller. The third on the auditing staff has for his supervision, all accounts for army subsistence, for fortifications, for the support of the military academy at West Point, for the making and maintenance of military roads, for the quartermaster department, for pensions, claims for military services which accrued previous to 1861, and for horses and other property lost in the military ser-

vice; reporting to the Second Controller. The accounts of the Navy Department are audited by the fourth on the staff, and the Fifth Auditor has charge of all accounts for the diplomatic and consular services under the direction of the Secretary of State. The Sixth Auditor adjusts the accounts of the Post Office Department, and unless an appeal is made to the first collector within one year, his decisions are final. Where legal steps are necessary to compel the prompt payment of moneys due to the department, it is the duty of this officer to give direction. Lands and other properties assigned to the postal department in satisfaction of debts are under the control of the Sixth Auditor.

20.—The Commissioner of Customs prescribes the methods assumed to be most convenient and safe for preserving the records of moneys received from customs and revenue, as well as all disbursements in that connection, and for the building and maintenance of custom houses. The Treasurer is the custodian of the moneys of the United States, disbursing the sums called for by warrants under the hand of the Secretary of the Treasury, countersigned by the First Controller; and by warrants under the hand of the Postmaster General, countersigned by the Sixth Auditor. Accounts of public receipts and disbursements are kept by the Register who is the recipient of the returns of commerce and navigation, and who also, for purposes of registration, receives from the First Controller and the Commissioner of Customs the accounts and vouchers adjusted by them. The Solicitor has it in his charge to superintend all civil writs commenced by the United States, unless proceedings have been originated by the Post Office Department; and in fulfillment of his duty he procures from each term of the United States courts, a return showing the progress of each suit. With the exception of such lands as may be assigned to the Post Office Department, and the care and custody of which belong to the Sixth Auditor, the Solicitor has charge of all land and property assigned

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to the United States in satisfaction of demands, having power to sell or in any other way dispose of the same for the benefit of the United States. The Commissioner of Internal Revenue supervises the collection of the direct taxes and all matters connected with the tax laws. There are no less than three thousand officers employed by the Treasury Department, residing in Washington. The Light-house Board controls the erection and repair of light houses, light vessels, buoys and beacons; the coast being divided into thirteen light-house districts. The Secretary of the Treasury is president of the board by virtue of his office, and is responsible for the administration of its affairs. The United States coast survey forms part of the treasury department, and it has now been in progress forty-four years, having been established in 1832 to survey the coasts and harbors, and prepare maps and charts on which absolute reliance can be placed. The operations of this bureau are carried on by a superintending officer and a staff of assistants comprising civilians and officers of the army and navy, qualified for such onerous scientific labors.

21. — There are sixty-two Collectors of Customs appointed by the President, subject to the usual advice and consent, to superintend the collection of customs in the sixty-two districts into which the seaboard of the United States is divided. The collectors have for their duty, in each of their several districts, to issue clearances, without which vessels cannot sail from the United States; to certify the correctness of manifests and bills of lading; to take account of all vessels built within their area of duty, and to make accurate returns of all imports and exports to the Register of the Treasury. Upon the arrival of foreign vessels the collector receives the manifest from each officer in charge, and, on that basis, computes the duties to be paid before the goods named therein can be landed. Clerks, appraisers, weighers, gaugers and inspectors are employed to assist the collector in each district ac-

according to the onerousness of the duties devolving upon him. The import duties collected in this way in the year which ended July 1, 1872, amounted to \$216,370,286. For the larger ports naval officers are appointed, who countersign all permits, clearances, certificates and other documents which are proper to be granted by the collectors, examining also and certifying, when correct, the Collector's accounts of receipts and disbursements. Surveyors are stationed only at the larger ports, having for their task the superintendence of inspectors, weighers, gaugers and others, and to report to the collectors every case of failure to perform a public duty on the part of the officers superintended. Besides the collectors of customs thus described, the United States is divided into internal revenue districts, with a collector in each, making assessments and collecting the direct taxes.

22. — The Principal Mint is at Philadelphia; but there are branches in San Francisco, in Denver City and elsewhere. There is an assay office in the city of New York in which gold and silver in bullion, coins, or gold dust can be refined and assayed. Coining money is performed under regulations prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury to secure the public and the government against fraud. One pound of gold is the assumed equivalent of fifteen pounds of silver, and, in the process of coinage, one tenth of alloy is added to both metals; gold being alloyed with silver and copper in equal parts, and silver with copper only. The gold coins of the United States are, the double eagle, worth \$20 and weighing 516 grains, the eagle, half eagle, quarter eagle and the dollar, diminishing in value and weight, until the gold coin worth one dollar weighs $25\frac{1}{4}$ grains. The silver coins are, the dollar, weighing $412\frac{1}{4}$ grains, and the several divisions of the dollar down to the half dime, worth five cents, weighing $20\frac{3}{4}$ grains. There is also a silver three cent piece weighing $12\frac{3}{4}$ grains. There are two coins in nickel, value five and three cents respectively, and two

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23. — The Superintendent of Coast Surveys is, by virtue of his office, Superintendent of Weights and Measures. Avoirdupois weight is the standard for all articles except gold, silver and precious stones. The pound avoirdupois is divided into sixteen ounces and each ounce into sixteen drachms. The hundred weight is one hundred pounds avoirdupois, and the ton two thousand pounds or twenty hundred weight. Troy weight is the standard for the excepted articles—gold, silver and the precious stones; the pound troy being divided into twelve ounces, the ounce into twenty pennyweights and the pennyweights into twenty-four grains. In liquid measures the gallon is the unit. The gallon consists of four quarts, the quart of two pints, and the pint of four gills. In dry measures, the unit is the bushel, which is $18\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter by 8 inches deep, and contains $2,150\frac{1}{4}$ cubic inches. One bushel contains four pecks, one peck eight quarts, and one quart two pints. The standard for long measure is a brass scale 82 inches in length, made in London for the coast survey office in Washington, where it is preserved. This standard differs very slightly from the English standard, the variation being only an accident originally, and so slight as to become noticeable only in very great measurements.

24. — Notwithstanding the terrible drain upon the resources of the country, entailed by the Great Rebellion, the finances of the United States are in good condition. In the year 1872, the receipts exceeded the expenditures by more than \$94,000,000. The balance remaining in the treasury was \$106,000,000 within a small amount, and nearly \$107,000,000 was devoted to the reduction of the national debt. Expenditures have considerably decreased since the termination of the war, and the increasing activity of the whole population in the arts of peace, assists materially to improve the tone of society. Reduced import duties

have been found much more productive of revenue than the very high rates which once prevailed, but even now it is known that the practice of smuggling is carried on to a demoralizing extent among persons and classes that should offer a better example to the bulk of society. In spite of such drawbacks the liabilities of the country are being steadily decreased, and statesmen are already promising a speedy resumption of specie payments.

25. — This nation has exhibited a wonderful recuperative capacity in carrying the burdens of debt. When the national finances were intrusted to Alexander Hamilton after the conclusion of the war for Independence, the consolidated debt was \$125,000,000, resting upon a population of less than four millions, scattered over a wide area of country in which science, arts and manufactures were yet in their infancy, and in which agriculture and mechanic arts were rude in the extreme. Spite of these drawbacks the interest was provided for with commendable punctuality, and in the year 1812, \$80,000,000 of the principal amount had been liquidated. The war which then ensued with Great Britain added \$30,000,000 to the aggregate, but before the year 1836 every cent of that amount had been paid with all the interest accruing, and in that year a surplus of \$36,000,000 remained in the Treasury. When the Mexican War commenced our national debt was only \$16,750,000, but in the year 1853 it had increased to \$67,341,000, still so great was the recuperative energy of our population that within one year the sum total was brought down to \$47,000,000, and in 1857 it had fallen to \$29,000,000. The income of the country fell off during the term of Mr. Buchanan's administration so that on the first day of July, 1860, our indebtedness stood at \$64,769,703, and from that time onward, the enormous expenditure necessary for the successful prosecution of the civil war showed a continuous increase until 1867. The debt on the 1st of July, 1861, was \$90,867,829, and in

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the following year it had reached \$514,211,372, steadily advancing in the succeeding years to \$1,098,793,181; \$1,740,690,489; \$2,682,593,026; \$2,783,426,879. From that time a gradual decrease commenced as July 1, 1867, and the succeeding years to 1872 exhibited the following totals: \$2,692,199,215; \$2,636,320,964; \$2,489,002,480; \$2,386,358,599; \$2,292,080,885, and \$2,191,486,848. The administration of President Grant has been fortunate for the country, inasmuch as the nation was already emerging from all its great troubles before his acceptance of office, and his policy has steadily tended toward the realization of the lines of policy demanded by the times and the people. The total debt, less cash in the Treasury in October, 1872, amounted to only \$2,166,994,677, and since that date the diminution has been not less marked.

26. — THE DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR. This branch of the public service was established in 1849, and the Secretary to whom its management is entrusted carries a great responsibility, as it involves the supervision of the General Land Office, the Pension Bureau, the Indian Office, the Bureau of Education, the Patent Office, and the Department of Agriculture; either of which might well task the powers of a great administrative genius to procure the best results possible for the community. Besides all these duties, United States Marshals and Attorneys are part of his domain, and the duty of collecting the census of the United States every decade also devolves upon the Department of the Interior. Of course all these several duties belong in an executive sense to the chiefs of the different bureaus, to which they have been departmentally allotted, but notwithstanding the responsibilities of the Secretary of the Interior are very great.

27. — The General Land Office is under the control of a commissioner, whose duty it is to procure the timely survey of public lands and to arrange for their sale. The public domain alienated in the year ending

June 30, 1872, showed an aggregate of cash sales for 1,370,320 acres; taken for homesteads, 4,671,332; granted to railroads, 3,554,887; located with military land warrants, 389,460; located with college scrip, 693,613; granted to wagon roads, 465,347; approved to states as swamps, 714,215; and located with Indian scrip, 5,760; dealing with a gross total of 11,864,934 acres. The increase of alienation over the year immediately preceding was nearly 1,100,000 acres, and the cash receipts under the several heads amounted to \$3,218,100. The work of surveying never ceases, the quantity thus made ready for alienation during the year named having been 22,016,608 acres. There were then ready for sale, 583,364,780 acres and an unsurveyed area of 1,251,633,620 acres, over which the spread of population will give an increase of value every year. The United States and territories are divided into 82 land districts, in which there are public lands yet waiting selection and sale. Ohio, Illinois and Indiana have each one land district; Missouri has three; and so has Alabama; Mississippi has only one; Louisiana has two; Michigan, five; Arkansas, four; Florida, one; Iowa, four; Montana, Utah and Arizona, one each; Wisconsin, six; California, nine; Nevada, four; Minnesota, seven; Oregon, three; Kansas, five; Washington Territory, three; Nebraska, five; New Mexico, one; Dakota, three; Colorado, four; Idaho, two; and Wyoming, one; the operations of every district coming under the review of the commissioner.

28. — The Commissioner of Pensions examines and adjudicates upon all claims which arise under the several laws of congress which have at any time granted bounty land or pensions for naval or military services in the revolutionary and in subsequent wars. When the returns were compiled from which we now quote, in June, 1872, there were in the books of this department the names of 95,405 military invalid pensioners, and of 113,518 widows, orphans and dependents of

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soldiers, receiving a total of \$28,142,633, an average of but about \$110.75 per head; but a contribution which marks the sense entertained by the nation of the services rendered to the country by brave, self-sacrificing men. There were at the same time 3,179 pensioners of all ranks, claiming for naval services and losses, and receiving annually \$405,537, or an average of nearly \$125 per head. There is no other form of outlay so well warranted as that which recognizes the debt of the nation to its brave defenders.

29.—The Commissioner of the Indian Office is responsible to the Secretary of the Interior for the proper direction of all business relating to Indian affairs. In all treaties with the tribes this officer represents the government, and the distribution of annuities and presents, on behalf of the general government, is carried on under his supervision. Necessarily, where so wide an area of country has to be traversed by agents, and where men not specially qualified for administration occasionally reach offices in which there are inducements to speculate on their own account, or to wink at such operations in others, it cannot fail to be found occasionally that presents intended for the Indians never reach their destination; but the system of check and counter check, which is being gradually brought into operation, will eventually render such fraudulent practices impossible. The department is usually credited with an earnest desire to carry out a difficult line of duty in the manner most conformable to honor and justice. The commissioner is assisted by fourteen superintendents, who are located at different points in the west, where they are easy of access to the Indians, should causes of complaint arise; and, besides these, there are, under their supervision in some degree, a number of Indian Agents owing their appointments to the President, whose express duty it is to protect the Indians among whom they reside. Another Commissioner is charged with the responsibilities of the Patent Office, having for his duty the

performance of all acts touching the grant and issue of letters patent for discoveries, inventions and improvements. Under him there is quite a corps of examiners and assistants, whose duty it is, in the interests of the public, to aid all genuine inventors to the realization of their demands for protection, and at the same time to prevent the issue of patents when the pretended or real improvement may have been patented before, or may be too small to warrant any concession. The examiners report in writing to the Commissioner upon every application, and these documents, subject to his revision if necessary, form the basis for his action in the premises. The Patent Office Official Gazette, issued monthly by this bureau, keeps the world of invention fully advised as to all applications and decisions in the department as touching their special interests, and as to all the judicial decisions which affect the operation of patent laws, together with such changes of practice as may from time to time be adopted. The public and other inventors learn from the publication all necessary particulars as to extensions sought by old patentees, and as to the applications of others, whose specifications and illustrations are likewise given when their claims have progressed to the point to require such action. During the year which ended June 30, 1872, there were 13,626 patents granted, and 233 extensions of old patents, the total number of applications being, for the first patent, 19,587, and for extensions, 284. There were, during the same year, 556 certificates granted on the registry of trade marks, the number of applications being 589, so that, even in such matters, some degree of scrutiny is found necessary to prevent unjust and possibly fraudulent imitations. The number of caveats filed during the year amounted to 3,100, that branch of action being the index of outside activity as to the affairs of the bureau. The Patent Office is something more than self-supporting, as the fees during the year named amounted to \$700,954, and the expenditures

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only footed up about \$323,557, leaving a margin of
about \$277,897, against which, however, must be
charged the cost of running the bureau, no small item
necessarily.

30.—The Department of Agriculture has the ad-
vantage of the services of a Commissioner and a com-
petent staff, whose duty it is to collect, arrange and
diffuse among the people most concerned valuable
facts connected with farming and pastoral pursuits,
and, in addition thereto, to obtain, propagate and dis-
tribute new and important plants and seeds which may
be utilized in this community. Botanists, entomolo-
gists and other scientific men are employed by the
Commissioner, in addition to the staff of clerical as-
sistants found necessary to carry on the operations of
the department, and much good is undoubtedly being
effected by the action of the Commissioner and his
assistants.

31.—The Bureau of Education employs only a
Commissioner and three clerks, and there is but little
administrative work falling upon this office, as every
state has control of its own schools. The collection of
facts and statistics showing the condition and pros-
pects of education in the several states and territories,
and to diffuse information wherever and whenever it
may appear likely that, by such action, the interests
of the school system may be furthered. The value of
such a department cannot be questioned, as the scat-
tered facts, which elsewhere might pass unnoticed, fall
here under review among men whose special duty it
is to generalize results and to demonstrate the value
of training.

32.—THE DEPARTMENT OF WAR. This branch
of the general government dates from 1789, and is un-
der the direction of the Secretary of War, the Presi-
dent of the United States, being, under the constitu-
tion, commander-in-chief of the army and navy. This
department may be considered more particularly his
own than any of the others named. The Secretary of

War issues all commissions for raising and commanding troops and directs their movements, being also charged to superintend their payment, clothing, stores, arms, ordnance and equipment, as well as all works of military engineering. These several duties are divided among different bureaus, presided over by officers of considerable standing, and it is generally assumed that the department is efficiently managed.

33. — The Headquarters of the Army is in the office of the Commanding General, and that office was in Washington until very recently, when a change was made to St. Louis, Mo. The General has charge of the discipline and distribution of troops, and all recruiting takes place under his direction.

34. — The Adjutant General's office keeps all records as to the *personnel* of the army, such as, among other matter, the muster rolls, and all correspondence with the administrative departments goes through this bureau. The yearly returns of the army are received here, and all orders issuing from the Secretary of War or from the Commanding General come through this office before publication.

35. — The Quarter Master General provides quarters and transportation for troops, as also storage and transport for all army supplies, clothing, horses for cavalry service and for the artillery. This office has charge of barracks and of all national cemeteries. Subsistence stores, including rations for troops and garrisons are the especial province of the Commissary General.

36. — The Office of Paymaster General controls all disbursements of pay to officers, soldiers and employees connected with the army. The paymasters connected with the various commands report to this bureau.

37. — The Ordnance Bureau is described by its title; armories, arsenals and ordnance stores all over the country are under its superintendence.

38. — The Office of the Engineer is charged with the construction and maintenance of military defenses,

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such as forts on the seaboard, etc., and the improve-
ments of rivers and harbors as well as the care of the
military academy at West Point are parts of the re-
sponsibilities devolving upon the Engineer's office.
The Chief of Engineers who commands the Engineer
Corps of the army, has the direction of this department,
and its works are just as important during peace as in
war times.

39. — The Surgeon General controls sanitary regu-
lations, and has the management of the military hospit-
als, as well as of the sick and wounded. From this
office the surgeons of the army receive their orders and
assignments of duty, reporting to the Surgeon General.

40. — Military Justice has a bureau which was
founded in 1864, and its staff consists of a Judge Ad-
vocate General, with the rank and pay of a brigadier
general and an Assistant Judge Advocate ranking as
a colonel of cavalry. This bureau has charge of the
proceedings of all courts martial and courts of inquiry.

41. — The Signal Bureau is under the direction of
the commander of the Signal Corps, and to this office
meteorological returns are made from all the signal
stations throughout the country. "Probabilities" has
here its head quarters as the forecasts as to weather are
made in this bureau three times every day and trans-
mitted by telegraph to all parts of the union. More
than three-fourths of all the predictions arrived at by
consideration of the universal system of reports have
been verified for many years past, and further study
of wind-currents will not fail to increase their accu-
racy. No great storm has occurred along the seaboard
of the United States for a long time without warning
being thus afforded to the threatened areas. Among
all the works of applied science, the operations of this
office take high rank, and the value of its work has
frequently been realized in the saving of property and
life.

42. — The Army is limited to thirty thousand men,
by act of Congress, and the term of enlistment is three

years. The present organization consists of Cavalry, sixteen regiments, twelve companies in each; Infantry, twenty-five regiments, ten companies in each; Artillery, five regiments, and one battalion of Engineers, besides the West Point Cadets. The command was vested in 1871 in 1 General, 1 Lieutenant General, 4 Major Generals, 16 Brigadier Generals, 68 Colonels, 83 Lieutenant Colonels, 270 Majors, 533 Captains, and 1,137 Lieutenants, first and second.

43.—THE NAVY DEPARTMENT. This branch of the service is under the direction of a Secretary, who procures naval stores and materials, directs the construction, arrangement and the equipping of war vessels, and generally carries out the orders of the President as to this arm of defense. Orders to commanders of squadrons and of vessels, and indeed to all officers of the Navy and the Marine Corps, come through this office. The several bureaus of the department are controlled by the Secretary, who is aided by an Assistant Secretary acting under his orders.

44.—The Bureau of Navy Yards and Docks has immediate direction of navy yards, wharves, docks, naval buildings, and of the Naval Asylum. The Bureau of Navigation controls and works the Astronomical Observatory near Washington, and the Hydrographic Office. From this bureau vessels of war are supplied with charts, maps, books and chronometers, the office being responsible for their correctness. The General Superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md., and the publication of the Nautical Almanac belong to this bureau. All ordnance and stores connected therewith, everything connected with naval armament, and the manufacture or purchase of cannon, guns, powder and shot, belong to the Bureau of Ordnance. Equipment and recruiting has a bureau which is charged to provide vessels with sails, anchors, and all the numerous etceteras demanded for the management of war vessels. The manning of ships is one branch of the duty of this bureau. Construction and

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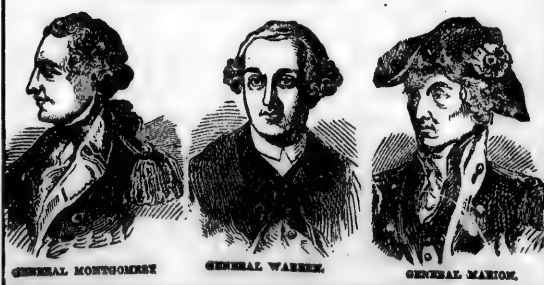
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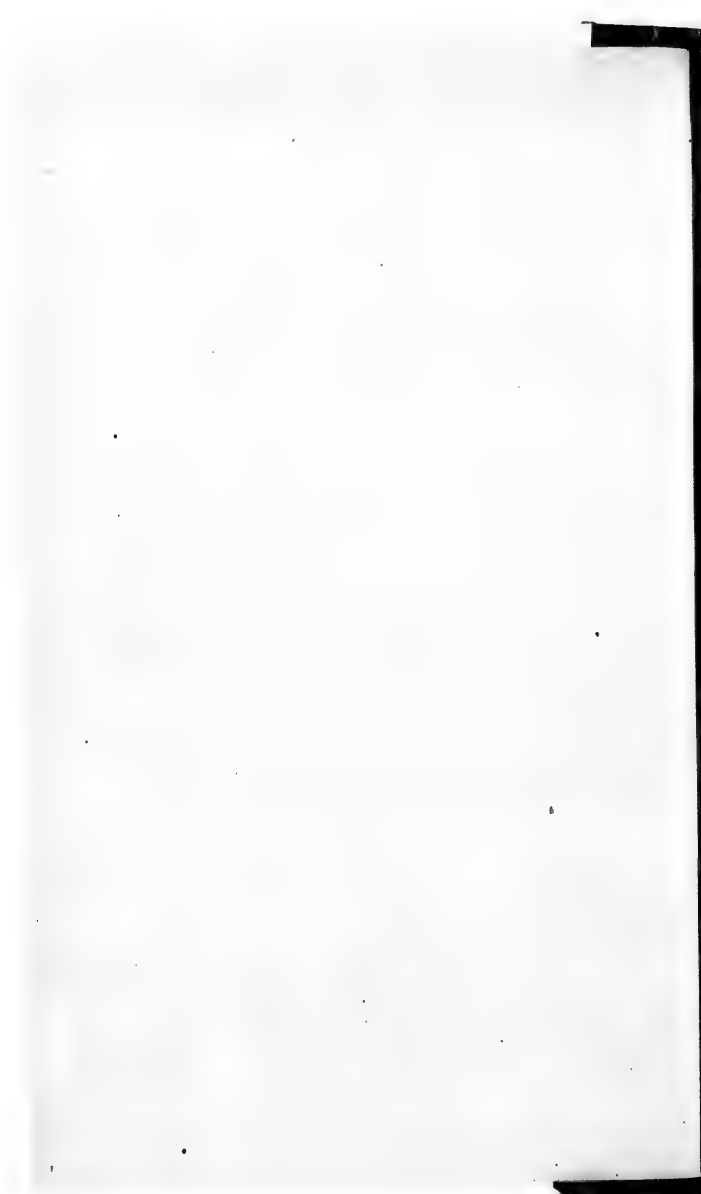
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repair of vessels of war devolve upon a special bureau which has charge of the purchase of all necessary materials. Steam Engineering, an entirely modern branch of the naval service, is committed to a bureau under the control of the Chief Engineer, who decides upon plans of construction, and superintends the building of marine steam engines. Provisions and clothing have a bureau which purchases under systems of tender, all clothing and provisions used in the naval service. Medicine and surgery are consigned to one bureau, which purchases and distributes medical stores, and generally has charge of the sick and wounded, as well as the control of the Marine Hospitals. The Navy in 1872 consisted of 178 vessels, carrying 1,378 guns; of this number of vessels 68 were steamers, carrying 929 guns in all; 31 were sailing vessels, with 322 guns; 51 were iron-clads, with 127 guns; and there were 28 tugs. The vessels then in commission numbered 45, and were armed with 462 guns, being distributed in the Naval Department under the orders of the President.

45. — THE POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT. This branch of the service is under the control of the Postmaster General, who has under him a very numerous staff, and is immediately assisted by three Assistant Postmasters General.

46. — The First Assistant Postmaster General is responsible for the working of the Appointment Office. The establishment and discontinuance of post offices devolves upon him, and the sites and names of such offices are also under his management, as well as the appointment and removal of postmasters and local agents, and their proper instruction as to the duties devolving upon officials of the department. The marking and rating stamps and letter balances issued to postmasters come from this office, and all blanks and stationery, proper to be used by the department, originate here. The office also has charge of the ocean mail steamship lines, and all international ar-

rangements with foreign powers. Some idea of the amount of business transacted by the Post Office Department may be gathered from the fact that there were, in 1872, 31,863 post offices in the United States, and 2,452 were money order offices. The increase of offices during the preceding year had been 1,818, and a growth nearly as large is pretty general at all seasons. The letter and newspaper postage stamps issued during the year numbered 455,380,820, but of course some of the letters and parcels sent bore many stamps, so that the number of packages forwarded cannot be ascertained from that record. The department employs 31,863 postmasters, 3,754 clerks, 5,544 contractors, 1,442 carriers, 764 route agents, 642 railway postal clerks, 146 mail route messengers, 95 local agents, and 59 special agents. Since 1872, the numbers have largely increased, but there were, at that date, in all 44,655 officials in the service, including the 345 assistants and clerks employed by the Postmaster General in Washington. The foreign letters sent in that year were 12,774,064, and the receipts from foreign countries made a total of 11,588,436.

47.—The Second Assistant Postmaster General controls the Contract Office, and it is his duty to arrange the mail service, contracting for the conveyance of the mails, and fixing the times for the arrival and departure of mails at all the points of distribution, as well as making regulations for the government of the domestic mail service. A weekly report of all contracts executed and orders affecting mail transportation accounts goes from this office to the Auditor, as already noted. The duty of inspection is devolved upon a division of this office, in which the registers of arrivals and departures are examined, and all reports of mail failures, delinquencies of contractors and such incidents of irregularity are noted for report to the Postmaster General. This division also has it in charge to provide mail bags and secure the mail against depredations. There were, in 1872, no less

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than 7,259 mail routes in the United States, with a total of 251,398 miles, of which 174,627 were traveled by horse power, 18,860 by steamboat, and 57,911 by railroad. The mail transportation for the year traversed 664,984,322 miles of road, and the increase in that respect, as in all others, still proceeds.

48.—The Third Assistant Postmaster General controls the Finance Office, supervising the financial affairs of the department so far as such business is not by law assigned to the Auditor, such as accounts with the draft offices and other depositories of the department, the issue of warrants and drafts in payment of balances found to be due to mail contractors and other persons upon the report of the Auditor. Officers under order to deposit quarterly balances at points designated by the office, and postmasters rendering accounts of their quarterly returns of postage stamps are under his supervision. The issue of postage stamps and the control of the dead letter office belong to this office. The Postmaster General estimated that, in the year 1873, the deficit to be supplied by congressional appropriation upon the whole service of the year would amount to \$8,310,592, a very small sum considering the vast area of sparsely settled country supplied with postal facilities, and, in some degree, with banking accommodation, and the vast districts traversed on many of the mail routes. The post office, well administered, is a beneficent means of civilization.

49.—THE ATTORNEY GENERAL'S DEPARTMENT. The duty of this officer is to prosecute offenders and conduct all suits in the Supreme Court to which the United States is a party, and to give his advice on all questions of law upon which his opinion may be required by the President, or by the head of any department. The general superintendence of United States' attorneys and marshals also devolves upon him, and he directs them in the discharge of their several duties. Two Assistant Attorneys General and a Solicitor Gen-

eral assist him in the performance of the duties of his office. He is also the examiner of titles for all lands to be purchased by the United States as sites for light-houses, custom houses, arsenals, and for other public works. He receives and considers all applications for the appointment of judges, district attorneys and marshals; and, upon appeals being made to the President for pardons, or for the remission of the imprisonment of public debtors, it becomes the duty of that officer to examine into the facts and to report thereupon to the President, preparatory to action being taken.

IX. EARLY HISTORY.

From the first Act of Colonization, 1607, to the first Continental Congress, 1774.

EARLY SETTLEMENT. With the limits of time thus placed, we will trace the history and development of the colonies, thirteen in all, that united in 1776 to cast off the British yoke, after remonstrances had proved vain as against the tyranny of the English government. Virginia, Massachusetts, Delaware, Maryland, New Jersey, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, North Carolina, New York, Rhode Island, New Hampshire and Georgia constituted the United States, when the Declaration of Independence was signed, but this division pauses immediately before that step was taken by our forefathers. There were two classes of colonists among the early settlers: the first comers were of the class afterwards known in English history as Cavaliers; they landed in Virginia in 1607; the other type the Puritans, afterwards known as Roundheads in history, landed on Plymouth Rock in 1620, and colonized Massachusetts. The early records show but little intercourse and common sympathy among these distant bands of men striving to master a hard destiny; but in the end the contest resulted well for the world, in the establishment of a home for liberty.

1. — VIRGINIA. Sir Walter Raleigh is credited with having given the name of Virginia to the country in which the first English settlement was made on

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this continent in compliment to Queen Elizabeth. The success of the Spaniards in procuring gold from the native population in Mexico induced many to believe that all America was auriferous, and in consequence, men who were not accustomed to daily toil came as birds of passage only, intending to return to England as soon as they had realized the wealth which they never doubted would be found in abundance. To become settlers, in the better sense of the term, was no part of their intention. The climate was very trying to such persons, and their endeavors find gold assisted to break down their constitutions, so that during the first summer, between April 26th and autumn, one-half of the colony had died.

2.—Capt. Smith, an adventurer, who published an account of his hair-breadth escapes in London while Charles I was quarreling with his parliament, was apparently the ablest man in the colony of Virginia. His experiences in many countries under trying circumstances had given him some readiness and energy, and he persuaded the gentlemen of Virginia to become foresters and workmen instead of idlers and gold hunters. At first a prisoner among the settlers, he was afterwards chosen a councillor, and then President of the council. Under his direction a fort was built, and log huts as a protection against wintry rigors; besides which he made friends of the Indians, and procured from them supplies of provisions during his exploring excursions. Under his guidance the colony came through its earliest perils, because he made the rule that none should eat except those that would work.

3.—The book published by Capt. John Smith contained many proofs of his ingeniousness, as it was full of perilous adventures, and beyond all doubt his courage led him into many difficulties from which it required all his address to find an escape. While striving to discover a passage to the East Indies up the Chickahominy River, one of the feeders of the James River, the adventurer fell into the hands of the Indi-

ana, and was detained as a prisoner; but he awakened an interest among his captors by an exhibition of his acquirements, and in company with them passed from tribe to tribe nearly all over the peninsula in which Gen. McClellan operated against Richmond in 1862. The great chief Powhatan is said to have condemned him to death; but the story is not absolutely beyond doubt, except that men wish to believe it because of the interest attaching to the intervention of Pocahontas. There was some foundation for the story that the beautiful Indian maiden saved his life, and Smith was after a time sent back to the settlement with promises of friendship from the Indians.

4.—Pocahontas continued to be a good friend to the white settlers; but the English government, under the incompetent direction of King James I, and his favorites, did all that was possible to ruin the adventure. The colonists had established a council to secure just administration, but the company under whom the first charter for settlement had been obtained, procured a second charter—in 1609—vesting the government in a Governor only, concerning whose appointment the settlers were never consulted, and in the preparation of whose laws they had no voice. They were treated as dumb cattle by their masters.

5.—The President of the Council had been in effect Governor for some time, and in that capacity the adventurer John Smith rendered good service, but about the time that the new charter was procured, he was severely wounded and returned to England. Quarrels with the Indians became common and many of the settlers were killed, besides which famine and disease decimated the remainder so rapidly that in six months their numbers fell from 490 to 60. Some of the Colonists had tried to thrive as pirates but their opportunities were few and they abandoned the undertaking. The miserable remnant concluded to abandon the settlement, but at the time that they were taking their departure the new Governor, Lord Delaware, ar-

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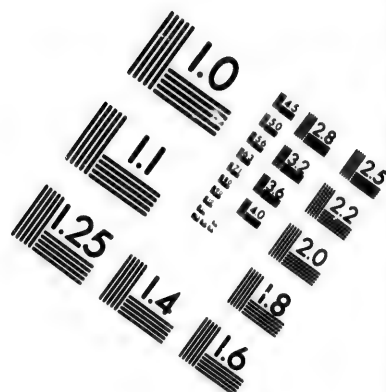
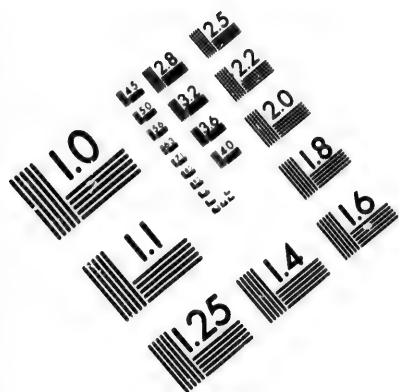
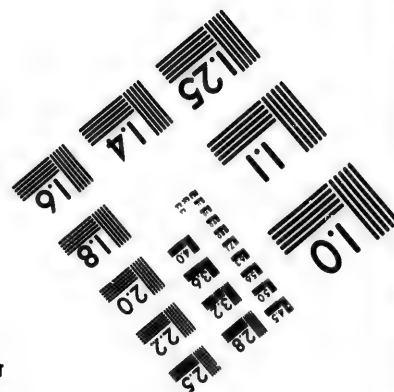
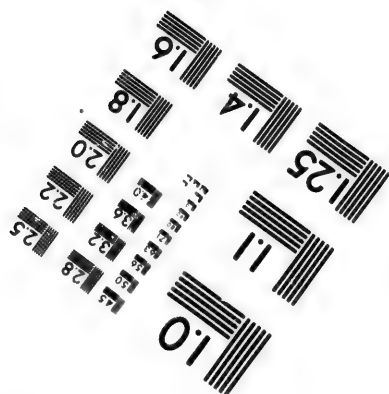
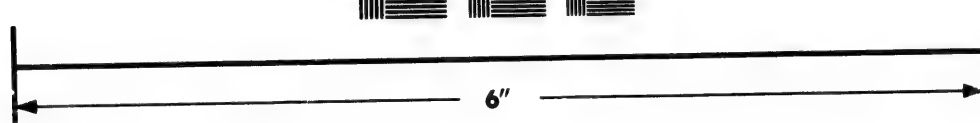
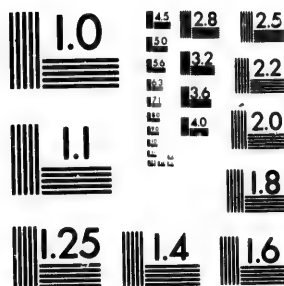


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rived, with abundant supplies and many emigrants. This event changed the aspect of affairs and the men who were just quitting their adopted home returned to try their fortune once more.

6.—The river on which the first settlement was established was called James River, and the settlement James Town, in honor of the King of England. The King showed his interest in the suffering Colony by issuing a third charter in 1612, allowing stockholders in the venture to regulate their own affairs untroubled by a council which had been formed in London.

7.—In the year 1613, Pocahontas, the beautiful Indian girl, who is said to have saved the life of John Smith, became the wife of John Rolfe, a planter. Rolfe was a man of singular piety, and his exhortations had induced Pocahontas to receive Christian baptism before they were joined in wedlock. They were married in the church at Jamestown, and three years later Pocahontas and her husband were in London, where they were received at court and in society with every mark of distinction. The child of the forest soon tired of the scenes by which she was surrounded in London, but she died suddenly in 1617, just as she was about to return. Her infant son is proudly named as the common ancestor of many of the first families in Virginia, and one result of the marriage was a prolonged peace between the settlers on one hand and the Chickahominies and Powhatan on the other.

8.—The year before the Puritans landed in Massachusetts, which happened in December, 1620, Gov. Yeardley called together the first legislative body of white men ever convened in America. This event happened June 28, 1619, and the parliament was an imitation of the King, Lords and Commons, of the mother country, being composed of the Governor, Council and Burgesses, the last named being the representatives of the Boroughs. The company in England might decline to ratify the laws passed by the

local legislature, but the company could not enforce laws unless they were approved by the Colonists, and the rights thus accruing were embodied in a kind of charter or written constitution in 1621. The affairs of the company in London were now in the hands of men who were deeply imbued with a love of liberty and justice, and Gov. Yeardley had their fullest support in building up the rights of the Colonists. The constitution dates from July, 1621, when the New England Colony was only seven months old.

9. — Tobacco growing had become the staple industry in and around Jamestown. Tobacco was the currency of the Colony, as well as its export, and along the James River there were settlements extending on both banks for nearly one hundred and fifty miles. The company which, under its earlier management, had sought merely to make a profit out of the adventure, had now set its mind upon making the Colony a success, and in consequence many young women were sent out from London where they were speedily married, husbands paying one hundred weight of tobacco as the cost of the bringing over of their future help-meets. That course of action was eminently successful, and many of the more enthusiastic Benedicts gave 150 pounds of tobacco for their better halves. Domestic obligations gave to the Colony the permanence of home in Virginia, where every man could vote and none ventured to interfere with religious freedom.

10. — In the year 1619, while freedom was just being established on a broad basis in Virginia, a Dutch vessel arrived at Jamestown, with twenty negroes, and the captain sold them to the planters to be employed in the cultivation of tobacco. That was the beginning of negro slavery in America, and the traffic continued for many years, although the first venture on the part of American citizens to procure slaves dates from Boston, twenty-six years later.

11. — Powhatan was the firm friend of the settlers, and had been so since the marriage of his daughter

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Pocahontas to John Rolfe, but after his death, in 1618, there was a conspiracy among the Indians to murder all the colonists on the 22d of March, 1622, at midday. Three hundred and forty-seven persons were thus destroyed, but the colony had consisted of 4,000, and the remainder were saved in consequence of the kindness of an Indian who wished to save a white man who had befriended him. Jamestown was fortified enough to scare the Indians from an attack, and all the settlements within reach were warned, but the outlying plantations were beyond rescue, and in them men, women and children were slaughtered without mercy. The colonists made war upon the Indians after this evidence of their treachery, and for more than twenty years they were peaceful after that outbreak, but the colony only numbered 2,500 persons after hostilities had ceased. The Indians made a somewhat similar attempt April 18, 1644, when about 300 settlers were slain, but the survivors among the natives were glad to purchase peace by making considerable cessions of territory. The frontier settlements were as usual the points of attack, and the secret was well kept, but the courage of the assailants failed even before the settlers began to assemble in arms.

12.—King James annulled the charter under which the colony had been governed, and in 1624 made Virginia a Royal Province, promising, moreover, to prepare a code of laws for the government of the people, but he died in 1625, and that affliction was thus averted. James had probably become jealous of the liberal spirit evinced by the company in London. The governor and council were thereafter nominated by the king, but Gov. Wyatt, who was governor when the charter was annulled, was continued in office, and the assembly continued in operation.

13.—The return of the Stuarts to power in England after the death of Oliver Cromwell in 1658 was the occasion of very oppressive legislation in the Parliament of Great Britain, and the colonies which had been

aided by the Great Protector were now almost crushed by the enforcement of the navigation act in 1660, which required that their tobacco should be shipped to England only, and must be carried in English vessels, by which means a twofold monopoly operated against the industries of Virginia. The first Charles had tried in vain to raise a revenue upon Virginian tobacco, but the advisers of the son were more successful. In 1658 "the Dutch and all foreigners" were invited to take part with Virginia, subject to the same duties as were paid by English vessels, but times speedily changed to a worse complexion. The cavalier element was largely represented in the colonial assembly, and they played the game of the long parliament in England, usurping unconstitutional authority. When their term of office expired, they refused to be dissolved, and they fixed their own emoluments at 250 pounds of tobacco *per diem*. Their tyranny increased with every manifestation of their power. The voting privilege was restricted to freeholders and housekeepers, and the few Quakers in the settlement were taxed at the rate of \$1,200 per annum for nonattendance in the Anglican church. The Royalists contrived thus to establish in Virginia two well defined parties, the wealthy planters assuming the airs of an aristocracy, making common cause with the office holders, and the industrious liberty loving people consorting together as men deprived of undoubted rights.

14.—The Premonitory Rising known as Bacon's Rebellion, which occurred one century, exactly, before the Declaration of Independence, was the natural and almost the inevitable outcome of the system introduced and upheld by the Royalist Assembly. Gov. Berkeley, who once made his boast that "there were no free schools nor printing presses in Virginia," had been removed from office as Governor by Cromwell, in 1651; but being restored by Charles II in 1660, he continued in office until the year before his death, which took place in London in 1677. During 1676, there were

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troubles with the Indians, and provision had not been made for the defense of the colony, until a young lawyer named Bacon, aged about 36 years, raised a company and routed the marauders. For that service Gov. Berkeley denounced the leader as guilty of treason, and Nicholas Bacon came, with his armed followers, to discuss the question. The Governor was driven out of Jamestown, the settlement was burned, and the village has never been rebuilt; but just when things promised a favorable outcome for the people, the young leader died, Oct. 1, 1676, and in the absence of efficient direction, the attempt was quelled by Berkeley with great severity.

15. — MASSACHUSETTS. New England was the ambition of the Plymouth Company, but like most of the adventurers that formed companies on the other side of the Atlantic, they knew but little of the task which they proposed to undertake. Several attempts were made on behalf of the Plymouth Company to explore and settle Northern Virginia, and a colony was actually established on the Kennebec in 1607, but the men composing the expedition had not the material of which success is made, and the settlement was abandoned in 1608, only one of the party having died. In the year 1620 the company procured a new patent as the Council of New England, with great privileges and concessions, but the settlement of New England was not to be achieved under their auspices.

16. — Plymouth Rock was reached by the Pilgrim Fathers and their families, on board the Mayflower, in December, 1620, and they landed, to the number of one hundred souls, in the midst of a storm of snow and sleet. They had endured too many hardships in their search for freedom to worship God to care for the inclemency of the season. The actual landing was made on Forefathers' Rock, as it is now called, on December 21st, the day being Sunday. The first hours of the new comers in their adopted home were thus given to worship; but their diligence on the succeed-

ing days showed that their hours of devotion had recuperated minds strong by nature, and their spirits could not be cast down by obstacles and difficulties.

17.—The moral force of the Pilgrims had been proved and improved by the persecutions already endured by them in the name of religion, and the wilderness, cold and inhospitable as it seemed, was not more rugged than their determination to subdue it to their purposes as a home; in which liberty, as they understood the word, should reign supreme, and in which God should be worshipped by all men, according to the views for which they had lived and suffered. Primarily it was their care that their children should be surrounded by religious influences, and be well educated, and they were thrifty in the management of their affairs, being in every respect most worthy and desirable citizens.

18.—Trials of fortitude were not wanting at any time in the new settlement; but during the first winter, the worse than usually severe weather, and the unprepared condition in which it found them, killed more than half their number. There were hardly as many in good health as sufficed to bury the dead and attend upon the invalids; at one time there were only seven who were not sick; but the constancy of the little band never wavered for a moment.

19.—The Pilgrims who were sent with the shallop to inspect the coast before a landing was effected at Forefathers' Rock, on December 21st (new style), endured one attack from Indians; but after the settlement had been made, the colony was undisturbed from that source. The tribe that had lived upon the territory which they occupied had been killed off by a pestilence, so that they were not trespassing in any way upon natural rights. Samoset, one of the tribe of Wampanoags, who had learned some few words of English, came to visit them one day in early spring, with words of welcome, and a treaty was entered into with Massasoit, the chief of his tribe, which for fifty

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years was observed on both sides. Miles Standish, whose fame has been sung by Longfellow, was the commander of the small force of the colony; but there was little occasion for actual war. One sachem, named Canonicus, who wavered in his faith as to the Pilgrims, sent a token of defiance, but a reply that could not be misunderstood, convinced the Narraganset chief that he could not afford to fight the new comers. Gov. Carver having died soon after the departure of the Mayflower, the office was conferred upon William Bradford, afterwards the historian of the settlement.

20. — Starvation seemed for a long time an imminent probability. For many months there was no corn in the settlement, as the harvest proved a failure. It is customary to mention that at one time there was only a pint of corn to be divided, and that the allowance of each settler was only five kernels each, but the actual fact reveals much greater destitution, clams being the only food available for considerable intervals. Communistic methods of working were tried here, as the same system had been tried in the early days at Jamestown, and in both cases failure was the result, until every man worked his own land, after which there was comparative plenty. Four years after the first settlement there were only 184 persons in the colony, and it was ten years before the Council for New England gave the colony a grant for the land which it had occupied. The people chose their own Governor, as no royal charter clogged their liberties, and they made their own laws.

21. — *The Bay Colony.* John Endicott, the first Governor of the Colony of Massachusetts, was about forty years of age when he came to America, and although a severe man, it was undoubtedly his desire to be honest. He, with five associates, procured a grant of land about Massachusetts Bay from the English Company, and a Royal charter, with power to make laws and rule the Colony. The Company made over their rights to the people who might take part in

the enterprise, and as a consequence many Puritan families were attracted to this region. Salem and Charlestown already founded by Governor Endicott in 1629, formed centres of attraction for many; some colonized Watertown and Dorchester, and in the year 1630, Boston was founded on the site known as Shawmut, afterwards called Tremont, by about one thousand colonists under Gov. Winthrop.

22.—Religious Intolerance was the vice of the age from which the Puritans fled, but it infected the men who ran from it, as well as their pursuers. Those who established themselves in Massachusetts Bay were opposed to the forms of the Church of England, and when persons who were inclined to Episcopacy came to their Colony, they sent them back again to England. A system of religious tests was rigorously insisted upon in the settlement. Among the new comers was one man, whose admirable heterodoxy took the form of asserting that every person should think for himself on all matters of religion, being answerable only to God. This man was the great Roger Williams, and a bonfire in the midst of a powder magazine could hardly have caused a greater commotion than did his manly teaching, around Massachusetts Bay. The interference of the civil magistrate in supposed offenses against religious thought was denounced by him as unjust, and in 1635 an order was made that the Preacher should be sent to England; but instead of submitting to that mandate, he fled to the woods, taking refuge among the Indians, who afterwards gave him land whereon to found a settlement, which he called Providence. The state of Rhode Island was thus founded, and although the grant from the Indians was to Roger Williams in person, he did not reserve to himself one privilege, but sought to build up a purely democratic form of government with such light, as to conscience, as was then new to the world. In the same relation the name of Anne Hutchinson arises, as during the same year as that which marked the ban-

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ishment of Roger Williams from his church at Salem, this wonderful woman, who claimed to have received special communications from on high, was the centre of a great controversy, as her preachings and expositions attracted so much notice, especially among her own sex, that she was banished eventually, and found refuge in Rhode Island, where none were questioned as to their religious views, as under authority. Eventually this pure and high minded woman was murdered by the Indians, but her record remained undimmed. The Society of Friends or Quakers also, in their quiet way, disturbed the peace of Massachusetts, and it was in vain that they were fined, imprisoned, whipped and banished, as their opinions and practices remained unaltered. Four of them were put to death, because they had returned to the settlement after being banished, but that acme of severity had no effect on the remainder, except to make them more persistent, and at last it became so evident that the persecutions could only make martyrs, that the iniquitous system was abandoned.

23.—The First Indian War commenced July 14, 1675, under the leadership of Philip the son and successor of the Sachem Massasoit. While the old chief lived there was peace, but the young man saw that the red men were being dispossessed of their hold upon the soil, and he sought to avert the doom of extinction by an act of savage daring and cruelty, which aimed at the destruction of the whole Colony. The tribes were confederated for the deed of slaughter, and the first blow fell upon the people of Swansey, as they returned from church on Sunday. The Colonists flew to arms, and Philip was defeated, but he only shifted the point of attack, and seemed to be ubiquitous. Tradition, not of the most reliable kind, says that an attack upon the people of Hadley was made on fast day, June 12, 1675, and was defeated by the prompt energy of Col. Goffe, one of the Judges that condemned Charles I to the scaffold, but even the

date of the assault varies as widely as from June 12th to September 1st, in the same year, and it seems probable that the whole story is an error. Philip was driven from point to point by the settlers, until he was shot by an Indian at Mt. Hope, after having kept the country in continual turmoil until far on in the year 1676.

24.—The First Union of the Colonies only embraced the New England settlements, and it dates from 1643, when Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut, Plymouth and New Haven formed a league against the Indians, the Dutch and the French settlers. The combination was known as the United Colonies of New England.

25.—The Navigation Act which we have seen oppressing Virginia, was still more cumbersome to Massachusetts, as the commerce of these colonies was considerable. Boston was known as a shipping place from the first year of its settlement, and the colonists concluded that the act should not prevent them carrying on their trade with the West Indies and elsewhere. Charles II and his advisers determined to put down the independent spirit of the people, but when an officer was sent to enforce the law, he was sent back again. The next step was to constitute Massachusetts a Royal Province, which would take from the people all powers of self government; but Charles died before the scheme bore fruit, and his obstinate brother James II undertook the task. In the year 1686, two years before he was compelled to abdicate the throne of England, James declared the charters of all the New England Colonies cancelled, and sent out Sir Edmund Andros as Royal Governor of New England. For three years the oppressions of the Royal appointee were endured, but as soon as it became known that William III reigned in England, the colonists deposed and imprisoned the Governor, resuming their old forms of administration until Sir William Phipps came, three years later, as the Governor of Massachusetts, Maine and Nova Scotia; after which Massachusetts remained a Royal Province until 1776.

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ROGER WILLIAMS.

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THE ENGLISH LANDING AT NEW YORK. 1664.



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GENERAL SCOTT.



26.—The Witchcraft Delusion in Salem, came to a head in the year 1692. The belief in witches was at that time all but universal; Kings, Judges, Clergymen, and men of Science, were alike under the delusion all over the world; and in Salem twenty persons were hanged and fifty-five tortured, because of their supposed complicity in hellish practices. Any and every story that was confidently told, on this subject, was sure of credence; and persons of all ranks were suspected, more especially if they expressed doubts as to the guilt of the accused. The delusion ran its course, however, and at last died out; but not before many persons had confessed themselves guilty of the abominable impossibilities charged against them.

27.—MAINE AND NEW HAMPSHIRE. Laconia was the name of a tract of land which was obtained from the New England Company, located at Plymouth, England, in 1622, by Gov. Gorges and others, forming a proprietary. The grant obtained extended from the Kennebec to the Merrimack. Sir Ferdinando Gorges was an accomplice with the Earl of Essex in his conspiracy against Queen Elizabeth, and became a witness against him in 1601. Under James I, Gorges became Governor of Plymouth in 1604, and much of his life was spent in trying to found an empire for his family in this country. Gorges was named Lord Proprietary of Maine, and his son was general governor for New England; but eventually the grandson of the original grantee sold his rights in Maine to the colony of Massachusetts for \$6,250, in 1677. Under the patent first obtained, Gorges and Mason operated for some time, but beyond establishing fishing stations near Dover and Portsmouth, nothing was effected until the patent was dissolved, when the country west of the Piscataqua was taken by Mason, who named it New Hampshire; Maine, the country east of that river, being possessed by Gorges. The territory was claimed by Massachusetts, and it was to end all dispute as to the title that the sum named was paid to the grandson

of Sir Ferdinando, as set forth. The inclusion which was thus effected, continued until 1820. The settlements in New Hampshire were too weak for purposes of self government and defense, and, in consequence, the stronger colony of Massachusetts was called upon to afford protection, so that the weaker was engrossed by the more powerful colony until 1741, when New Hampshire became a Royal Province, and enjoyed that distinction until the year 1776. The province was called Maine to distinguish it from the islands along the coast, and the name once adopted continued. The grants conferred upon individuals such as Mason and Gorges, were frequently sources of much litigation.

28.—CONNECTICUT. Further West was already the cry of the New England colonists, and the valley of the Connecticut or Long River as that name implies in the Indian tongue, was the point of attraction. Intelligence concerning the situation had been obtained from traders who had built a fort at Windsor before the Council of New England had granted the territory. The Dutch had a fort at Hartford, and also had commenced traffic with the Indians, from participating in which they vainly strove to keep the English colonists. The requisite grant from the council was procured in 1631, by two of the Puritan Lords in England, Saye and Seal, and Brooke, after whom the settlement was called Saybrook. The first regular settlers were led to the site of Hartford in 1637, but winter came on early in that year and with great severity, so that men and cattle died in considerable numbers before the spring, and the complete abandonment of the enterprise was determined upon; but in the spring of 1636 a much larger body came under the guidance of Thomas Hooker and John Haynes, guided by the compass only, and driving flocks and herds before them. A fort established by John Winthrop, shut out the "Dutch Intruders from Manhattan," a regular government was established and better times realized. The meadow lands of the Connecticut were the principal

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29. — Indian Perils environed the Western Colo-
ny, and the Narragansets were about to join the
Pequods to make war upon the settlement, when the
founder of Rhode Island, the blameless and admirable
Roger Williams, who had communicated the fact of
the impending combination to the Governor of Massa-
chusetts, and had been requested by Sir Harry Vane
to interpose his influence with the Narragansets, start-
ed for the heart of the combination and in the very
midst of the Pequods used his persuasive arts so
effectually, that he saved the men who had been the
cause of his banishment. The conduct of the great
Roman Curiolani shows but poorly beside the unpre-
tentious nobility of the leader of free thought. His
labors and perils extended over three days, and it is
safe to say that no other man would have succeeded as
he did. The Pequods unable to drag the Narragansets
into the war which had been commenced, were com-
pelled to fight unsupported, and the colony was saved
from absolute destruction. Thirty of the settlers were
murdered, before an expedition under the command of
Mason was determined upon, consisting of eighty men
in all, well armed for such an enterprise, undertook to
humble the Pequods. The superiority of European
arms left no chance in such an encounter for the clans
on the Mystic River, although they were as hundreds to
tens. Their fort of palissades on the summit of a hill
was carried by the Connecticut forces, the wigwams
set on fire, and as the warriors tried to escape they
were shot down or hunted to death afterwards. Almost
the whole tribe perished in one day and all their lands
were laid waste.

30. — "Union is Strength," was the motto among
all the scattered colonies, and combinations were made
in every locality where support could be given and re-
ceived by the different settlements. During the
Pequod war the Governor of Massachusetts gave as-

sistance by men and counsels to the Connecticut colony. This settlement comprised Hartford, Windsor and Wethersfield among which a written constitution, the first framed on this continent by the people themselves, gave the right of voting to all free men. Saybrook Colony was a proprietary settlement at first, but Connecticut bought the company's rights and the settlement was included under its laws. New Haven Colony took the bible for law and government, and the settlement was under church rule. The absorption of Saybrook by Connecticut left only two colonies in the region named.

31.—Definitive Union was secured 1662, by the issue of a Royal charter by Charles II, under the influence of John Winthrop, which extended to all the colonists in the combination the rights certified under the Connecticut constitution. King Charles could be induced to indorse such liberal provisions in sheer thoughtlessness, although he would have annulled all the charters if his life had been spared. His brother James in 1686, sent Governor Andrews to Hartford to demand the surrender of the Royal gift. The charter was about to be handed over when the chamber was suddenly darkened, and before the candles could be relighted Captain Wadsworth had disappeared through the crowd, and the document, safely hidden in the Charter Oak, was not visible again until Governor Andrews had returned to Boston. The annulment executed by the Royalist Governor was of no avail, and three years later James II, having fled from England, Governor Andrews was imprisoned by the colonists. The charter was to have been violated in 1693 under the rule of Governor Fletcher, but Captain Wadsworth intimidated the Governor into abandoning the project.

32.—RHODE ISLAND. Freedom of Thought was the watchword of this colony from the first. Before Roger Williams came to the Island, William Blackstone, an independent, who had become tired of the rigorous rule of the church in Boston, had settled near

Connecticut colony. Windsor and its constitution, the people themselves, the men. Saybrook at first, but Connecticut and the settlement of Haven Colony took and the settlement of Saybrook colonies in the region

secured 1662, by the charter of Charles II, under the influence extended to all the rights certified under the charter of Charles could be annulled all provisions in sheer force and have annulled all laws. His brother drew to Hartford to the gift. The charter of the chamber was the candles could be disappeared through safely hidden in the until Governor Andros. The annulment executed was of no avail, and fled from England, led by the colonists. In 1693 under Captain Wadsworth andoning the project. The House of Thought was in the first. Before and, William Blackstone, become tired of the colony, had settled near

the site of Providence; and as we have seen, Roger Williams made his settlement in 1636, cotemporary with the second expedition to Hartford under Hooker. From all the settlements, those who were oppressed made their way to Rhode Island, and Williams gave of his lands to every one until only two small pieces which he had cultivated from the first remained in his own possession. Mrs. Hutchinson, and some of her followers, came to the settlement; the good woman having been banished from Massachusetts, as being worse even than Roger Williams in the vindication of liberty of conscience. Some of the new comers established the Rhode Island Plantation on the Island of Aquidday. The name Rhode came from the Dutch roode, or red. In this colony the civil magistrate had no power to interfere with men on account of their religious views.

33.— Roger Williams, one of the least worldly of men, was obliged at every step to combat the prejudices of his surroundings, all of them men able to appreciate his goodness, but impressed with the idea that he was light headed because he upheld freedom of thought. The Rhode Island settlement was denied the right to join the New England Union on the plea that no charter had been granted, and the preacher made a voyage to England while the civil war was progressing in that country which ended in the triumph of Cromwell. Returning with a charter in 1647, the people were convened to elect their officers, and to affirm the principle of religious liberty; which was the more remarkable in that age, because those who were most sealous against the old tyrannies, or so called orthodox thought, were among the readiest to put pressure upon the thoughts of other men.

34.— NEW YORK. Ferdinand, Duke of Alva, boasted that he had put to death 18,000 Netherlanders during the war for the supression of Protestantism in the low countries, but he could not destroy the spirit of enterprise and reform among the people, and soon

after the discovery and exploration of the river in 1609 which bears the name of Hendrik Hudson to this day, Dutch ships began to arrive to cultivate a trade with the Indians. Settlements were made by the West India Company, at New Amsterdam in 1613, and at Albany, on the west bank of the Hudson, in 1614, and Fort Orange, or Aurania, was built in 1623. This settlement was successively called Beverwyck and Williamstadt, before the name of Albany was given, in compliment to the Duke of York and Albany, afterwards James II. of England. Patrons or Patroons, who brought fifty emigrants with them were allowed by the company to buy land direct from the Indians, and titles so obtained were indefeasible. The Van Rensselaer family obtained twenty-four miles square on both sides of the Hudson.

35. — New Amsterdam, on the Island of Manhattan, had four Dutch governors in succession, ending with Peter Stuyvesant, the ablest of the quartette, but none of them were able to understand the principles of civil liberty. Dutch Burgomasters could not comprehend the claims of the colonists to enjoy such privileges as had been conceded to the settlers in Connecticut, as the liberties of the Netherlands had been merely the crystallization of the powers of a commercial aristocracy, under which the people enjoyed but little freedom. The Swedish settlement on the Delaware and the English settlers on the Connecticut troubled the peace of the Dutchmen when they were not engaged in warfare with the Indians, but in the end, Peter Stuyvesant came to terms with Connecticut as to the territory lying between Connecticut River and the Delaware, and being thus enabled to give undivided attention to the Swedes he reduced their settlement to submission. This happened in 1664 and in September of that year, just when affairs looked more sound than they had ever appeared before, since the first landing, an English fleet demanded an unconditional surrender in the name of the Admiral, the Duke of York. The people were

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certain of more liberty under the new rule than they
were enjoying, so they refused to fight, and the brave
old Governor was compelled to capitulate. The name
was then changed to New York in honor of the Duke,
who was thenceforth considered the proprietor.

36.—Connecticut Privileges were not conceded
by the new rulers, the people were taxed arbitrarily
and their remonstrances were burned contemptuously
by the hangman, so that there was no difficulty about
the reconquest of the settlement in 1673, when the
Dutch fleets had become masters of the seas. The
fleets prepared by Cromwell had been the means of
the first conquest, but since Charles II ascended the
throne, England had so much declined in power, that
it was feared the Dutch, who had sailed up the Thames,
would even sack London. The presence of a Dutch
fleet caused the name of New Amsterdam to be once
more assumed, but when the war came to an end in
1674, England was allowed to resume the mastery.
Gov. Andros, who was afterwards imprisoned by the
Colonists of New England, was the first ruler ap-
pointed after the resumption, and his conduct was so
monstrous that he was recalled by Charles II. Gov.
Dongan, the next comer, obtained permission from the
Duke of York to convene a popular assembly, but
when the Duke became King he revoked every con-
cession, added New York to the New England Prov-
ince, of which Andros became governor, forfeited all
the charters, forbid assemblies and denounced print-
ing, carrying out on this continent the bigoted rule
which was the cause of his downfall in England in
1688. The deputy governor that represented Andros
in New York was so conscious of his own misdeeds,
that he fled as soon as he learned that the people of
Boston had imprisoned Andros; and in the absence
of other rule, Capt. Leislor, an able man, in whom the
people had much faith, assumed the direction of affairs.
The first governor appointed by William and Mary
was named Slaughter, and his most objectionable deed

was the slaughter of Leislor on a baseless charge of treason. It is claimed that Gov. Slaughter was drunk when the order was made to gratify the aristocratic enemies of the captain. The rule henceforward was less arbitrary until the days of George III, but there continued to be enough of tyranny to maintain the vigilance of the people in defending their rights.

37.—NEW JERSEY. Dutch Parentage must be conceded to the settlements first made in New Jersey, and soon after the Duke of York became proprietor of the New Netherlands, he handed over the territory between the Hudson River and Delaware to Sir George Carterel and Lord Berkeley. Elizabethtown was named after Lady Carterel in 1664, by a company of settlers from Long Island and the New England Colonies, and thus the first permanent English colony in New Jersey was established almost at the same date as the surrender of New Amsterdam to the English fleet.

38.—Further Settlement was mainly due to the Quakers, although Puritans and Scotch Presbyterians largely possessed the land. West Jersey was the portion belonging to Lord Berkeley who sold to some English Quakers, and a settlement from that body was formed at Burlington, being joined by large numbers subsequently. East Jersey was purchased from Carterel's heirs, after his death, by another company of twelve Quakers, including William Penn, and the colony prospered.

39.—The Consolidation of New Jersey was effected in 1702, when the whole of the proprietors surrendered their rights of rule to the English Crown, and the settlements were united to New York under one governor, but with an assembly to legislate on local affairs. In the year 1738, New Jersey was constituted a Royal Province, at the request of the people, during the reign of George II.

40.—Delaware was originally settled by the Swedes in 1637, and it is now, with the exception of

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Rhode Island, the smallest state in the union, terri-
torially considered. The first permanent settlement,
near Wilmington, was called New Sweden in honor of
the land of their nativity by the Swedish Colonists,
but the Dutch, under De Vries, had established a col-
ony in 1630, near Lewes in Sussex county. The
Dutch colony, only thirty in number, was destroyed
by the Indians in 1633. The Swedes and Finns act-
ing under the Swedish West India Company, built a
fort at the mouth of Christiana Creek, and another on
Tinicum Island, below Philadelphia. This action pro-
voked hostilities on the part of the Dutch, and after
much fighting the Dutchmen conquered, sending
back to Sweden all the Colonists who would not swear
allegiance to Holland.

41.—Lord De La Warr, who came to govern
Virginia just when the Colonists were leaving James-
town in 1610, entered Delaware Bay in that year, and
his name now attaches to the state, although Hendrick
Hudson was the first explorer in 1609. When New
York fell into the hands of the English, Delaware was
claimed by the Duke of York. Lord Baltimore as-
serted that he had a prior claim under a grant from
the crown, but the Duke, being the king's brother,
carried the day, and in 1682, sold his rights to William
Penn, who, after litigation with Baltimore, became
established as the proprietor in 1685. Delaware was
thus included in Pennsylvania for more than twenty
years, but in the year 1703, the right to secede was
procured, still the colony was governed by the Gov-
ernor of Pennsylvania until 1776.

42.—The Three Lower Counties on the Dela-
ware suffered but little from Indian and foreign wars,
from the time that the English came into possession,
but, during the struggle made by the colonies to dis-
possess the French, Delaware did its share with honor
and alacrity; and, later in the day of liberty, "The
Blue Hen's Chickens" distinguished themselves on
many a sanguinary field.

43.—PENNSYLVANIA. Quakerism had never before so good an opportunity to distinguish its peculiar tenets as were afforded when William Penn obtained from Charles II a grant of the land lying west of the Delaware River. The addition of the territory, which the Duke of York claimed, was the result of a purchase, and Pennsylvania was taken in liquidation of a debt which probably would never have been paid otherwise. The followers of George Fox were bitterly persecuted in England, as well as in some of the American Colonies, and Penn desired to found a settlement in which that worthy body, his colleagues, might enjoy freedom to worship God according to their consciences. Two thousand men were sent over by him in a single year, and, shortly after, the founder of the colony came to superintend the establishment of his friends in peace.

44.—Brotherly Love was the basis on which Penn sought to build up a state, and when Philadelphia was founded, in 1683, the land was purchased from the Swedish colonists. The site was in the midst of woodlands, and game of all kinds abounded, but the settlement grew apace. There were one hundred houses within twelve months, two thousand inhabitants within the next year, and, before 1686, Philadelphia already outstripped New York, which had been settled more than fifty-three years.

45.—Penn's Toleration was the highest enunciation of that principle extant, except that in operation in Rhode Island. Unlike most persecuted people, the Quakers did not wish to persecute, and the body convened to make laws, soon after the arrival of their founder, promulgated what is known as "The Great Law," which made faith in Christ the only qualification for voting or holding office, and protected from molestation for the sake of religion all men having faith in Almighty God. Jews, who have been enfranchised in all the leading civilized nations, were not embraced in the toleration of Pennsylvania, which, by

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so much, fell short of the higher standard adopted by Roger Williams. William Penn did not aim at personal aggrandizement, nor did he wish to have his name prefixed to "Sylvania," which was the appellation selected by him for the lands granted by Charles II. That addition was made in spite of his earnest solicitation. He gave the people every concession that his powers would permit, and that seemed to be necessary for their welfare. His position as a courtier during the reign of the Stuarts was compromising, but his influence was always exerted on behalf of a people otherwise universally oppressed. The dress which was worn by William Penn as a courtier has continued for centuries as the distinguishing garb of the sect to which he belonged, and is indirectly an evidence of the esteem in which he is held.

46.—The Grand Indian Treaty is not described by any cotemporary writer who was on the spot to make a record of the transaction; but it is attested by letters both before and after the event, and the large elm tree at Shakamaxon, near Philadelphia, is frequently named. The interview was not for the purchase of lands, but for the ratification of a treaty of amity, which has always been observed on both sides. The Indians were much impressed by the kindly manners of the founder. The tree was prostrated by a storm, in 1810, and a monument now stands upon the spot where it flourished. Penn's address to the Indians was a singular piece of natural eloquence.

47.—The Founder of Pennsylvania departed from the colony in 1684, leaving all his friends peaceful and at peace. His last words before sailing were, "My love salutes you all." One woman was brought to trial charged with being a witch, during Penn's visit; he presided on the trial, and the poor woman was acquitted. This was the end of such trials in Pennsylvania. After the death of William Penn, which took place in 1718, his heirs became proprietors, and they ruled the colony by their deputies until the

revolution, after which the state bought out their rights by a payment of nearly \$500,000.

48.—MARYLAND. Religious Persecution was the chief reason why the settlement in Maryland was made in the year 1634 by Lord Baltimore. The title is now extinct, but the name will probably endure to the end of time. The first Lord Baltimore was a Catholic, and stood high in the favor of King James I, who hated Puritanism and Presbyterianism almost as much as he loved himself. James raised him to the peerage and afterwards gave him a grant in Newfoundland whereon to establish a colony. In the year 1625, Baltimore went to Newfoundland, but the attempt to establish a settlement was a failure. Three years later he was in Virginia, hoping to find in that colony a tolerant spirit toward his co-religionists, but he was disappointed, and, upon his return, he memorialized Charles I, who had become King, asking a grant of the area now known as Maryland. His son became the founder of the state under the grant sued out by the first Lord, who died in 1632, and his second son, Leonard Calvert, became Governor, having conducted an expedition for the foundation of the colony, which left England in November, 1633. The name Maryland was in compliment to the Queen of England, daughter of the famous Henri of Navarre, whose second name was Maria. Upon the land north of the Potomac, granted by Charles I, the first settlement was named St. Mary's, at an Indian village near the mouth of the Potomac.

49.—The Maryland Charter differed favorably from that of Virginia, and the first action under it was to secure for men of all religious persuasions perfect liberty, provided only that the persons claiming toleration were Christians. Every freeman had a voice in legislation, and Maryland soon became known next to Rhode Island as the refuge of persecuted souls. The charters issued by the English government were often so loosely drawn that one overlapped another's bound-

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daries, and in consequence of some such error, interne-
cine strife commenced between Maryland and Virginia
in the year 1635. There were other disturbances also.

50.—Councillor Clayborne, one of the digni-
taries of Jamestown, in Virginia, stubbornly contended
that Lord Baltimore's grant overlapped the boundaries
of Virginia, and he erected trading posts in Maryland,
determining to hold them against the new comers.
This happened in 1635. There was some fighting and
Clayborne's party was beaten. He did not wait the
result of the contest, but returned to Virginia, whence
he was sent to England to be tried as a traitor. He
was acquitted of the charge, and in 1645 returned to
Maryland where he succeeded in raising a rebellion
which overpowered the Governor for a time; but after a
brief interval, Gov. Calvert came back to the colony
with a force sufficient to defeat Clayborne, and upon
his escape the rebellion ended.

51.—Intolerance prevailed in the Maryland
assembly as soon as the Protestants became strong
enough to control that body. Catholics were expelled
or excluded from the legislative body which had been
established by themselves, and they were declared out-
laws. There were for a time two governments, and
from 1691 to 1715, the Baltimores were deprived of
their rights as proprietors. Civil war went on with
alternate successes for some years, and in the main the
Church of England gained the mastery, Catholics being
disfranchised. After the year 1715, the fourth Lord
Baltimore procured a recognition of his rights, and tol-
eration became the rule once more. After that time
the course of events went on without disturbance
worthy of note until 1776.

52.—SOUTH CAROLINA. Charles II granted a
large tract of land to his councillor, Lord Clarendon,
and several other noblemen, in 1663, and this vast area
south of Virginia was called Carolina from *Carolus* in
his honor. The first colony that was established in
South Carolina was on the banks of the River Ashley

in 1670, and this was known as the Carteret colony. Ten years later the settlers concluded that they would move their quarters, and in 1680 they emigrated to a tongue of land between the Cooper and Ashley Rivers, the site of the present city of Charleston, seven miles from the Atlantic, and surrounded by every facility for an unbounded commerce. There is no finer harbor on the Atlantic coast. The growth of the settlement was not rapid during the first half century, but after that time it increased considerably. The Dutch came from New York and the surrounding country, and the Huguenots from France also contributed a large quota toward the limited success that was achieved.

53. — *John Locke's Legislation.* It often happens that great philosophers fail when they attempt to bring down the theorems of the closet to the work of every day life. Locke serves to illustrate that fact. In concert with the brilliant Earl of Shaftesbury, the philosopher undertook to make laws for Carolina, and he did so; but the system was entirely misconceived. The comprehensive writer on "The Understanding," allowed no understanding to the people, who were entirely lost sight of in a magnificent display of manors, baronies and feudal titles, such as could only provoke laughter, wherever a new attempt might be made to create them. After much time spent in unavailing endeavors to bring the scheme into operation, the abortive code was indefinitely abandoned.

54. — The Royal Province of South Carolina known as the Carteret colony dates from 1729, when the proprietaries becoming tired of the continuous jealousies of the people, who were unwilling to pay rents and taxes, and who resented every attempt at arbitrary procedure, surrendered to the British Crown their rights of government, and retained only one-eighth of the soil. Up to that time South Carolina had been connected in a very cumbrous way with North Carolina under the same Governor. South Carolina was now a distinct Province, having full control of its own local affairs.

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55. — NORTH CAROLINA. Albemarle Colony was named after Gen. Monk, who on the 8th of May, 1660, procured the restoration of Charles II, and was created Duke of Albemarle. The Grant of land in which it stood, covered both Carolinas, North and South, and it would be useless to recapitulate the manner in which it was obtained. The people who had settled in Virginia, to the north of the new Grant, pushed their way to this point, and established a plantation. They selected a governor among themselves, and upon condition that they paid a rental of one cent. per acre to the proprietary, they were not disturbed in any respect as to their rights and liberties.

56. — The attempt to introduce the grand model of law was a failure in North Carolina, as well as in the South, and in both settlements there was much satisfaction when the claims of the Proprietary ended in the establishment of two Royal Provinces. The arbitrary conduct of the owners of the soil who had claimed authority to tax, to govern and to direct, as well as to collect rent and other impositions, had long kept the people in a peculiarly watchful and jealous mood. The promises made to the people had not been observed, their laws and their officers had been superseded, and they had every cause to look with disfavor upon the men by whom they had been deceived.

57. — George Fox, the founder of the Quakers, visited the Carolinas in 1672, while the Locke constitution was under debate, and he found the people very well disposed to hear from him the truths of religion; many Quakers were there, and men of all classes who had fled from oppression elsewhere; but none who were disposed to submit to the arbitray pretensions of the proprietaries. There was relief from many troubles when the colony was constituted a Royal Province in 1729.

58. — GEORGIA. George II, the second monarch in the Hanoverian line, granted to an English officer named Oglethorpe, and to some others, in 1732, the

tract of land now known as Georgia, being named from the king, to be held in trust for settling the colony. The territory was at that time in dispute between Great Britain and Spain, and Gen. Oglethorpe was Commander of forces as well as founder of a colony. John Wesley and George Whitfield were associated with him in the work of settlement, and the latter visited the colony very often, intent upon charitable purposes. The first settlement was made at Savannah in January, 1733, by Gen. Oglethorpe and 120 persons, who were to hold land on the condition of rendering military service when required, but the requirements in that direction were irksome, and great numbers left the colony for North Carolina. After that time a change was made, and every settler was allowed fifty acres of land in fee. When war was declared by England against Spain in 1739, Gen. Oglethorpe commanded the colonial troops and Indian allies to the number of 1,000, but an expedition into Florida, undertaken by him, proved a failure. Charity contributed largely to make Georgia a home for the suffering and struggling poor in England, but much discontent was expressed because negro slavery, which was allowed in other states, was expressly prohibited here, and in 1752 the trustees surrendered their trust to the Crown, and Georgia became a Royal Province until the year 1776. There were many other limitations in the way of paternal legislation, attempted by the trustees during their term of authority, such as prescribing the size for a farm, forbidding the importation of rum, and declaring women incompetent to inherit land. Wisdom naturally suggests limitations as to all such matters as desirable sometimes, but the people will seldom submit gracefully to such prescriptions from others. It was proper when land was to be held on terms of military service that women should be disqualified, but in any other respect the law was an absurdity. Georgia was the younger state when the Revolutionary War commenced, but she bore her share in the struggle with exemplary courage.

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59.—WARS. *Under King William III.* 1689-1697. Protestantism had been fought for between Holland and France for many years before William, Prince of Orange, was called to the English throne. That event made the war English, and involved the colonies. The Iroquois assisted the English settlers, the Indians of Canada and Maine gave aid to France.

60.—Indian Atrocities were now combined with the strategy and weapons of civilization, and outlying settlements in New York and New England were exposed to terrible outrages. Some of the scenes described are absolutely shocking, and of course the effort on each side was to outstrip the other, once a beginning had been made. It is claimed that the preliminary assault was made by a war party of French and Indians from Canada.

61.—Reprisals were made with little delay. Gov. Phipps, of Massachusetts, led an expedition against Port Royal, in Acadia, and was very successful, obtaining much plunder. Another enterprise, involving a combined attack by sea and land upon Canada, failed utterly. Proceedings dragged on in a desultory way until the King of France, Louis XIV, concluded a peace in 1697, acknowledging the right of William III, by treating with him at Ryswick. The territories held at the beginning of the war were not disturbed by the treaty.

62.—*Under Queen Anne.* 1702-1713. The War of the Spanish Succession was entirely European and dynastic, as the aim of England was to curb the power of France, but it involved the colonies in a resumption of hostilities. New York was protected by the neutrality of the Iroquois or Five Nations, but New England suffered severely, their frontier line being desolated. Outlying settlements were given up, and near to the towns people worked with their weapons ready for use.

63.—The Colonists replied vigorously by wresting Port Royal once more from the French, with the assistance of English troops, and the place was called

Annapolis as a compliment the Queen. Quebec was assailed once more without avail; many vessels were lost, and nearly one thousand men. South Carolina and Georgia made attacks upon the Spanish Fort of St. Augustine in Florida, which had become a nest of freebooters, but the colonists had no success in that quarter.

64.—TREATY OF UTRECHT. After eleven years fighting, the genius for war possessed by the Duke of Marlborough, commander of the English forces, compelled Louis XIV to subscribe a treaty most unfavorable to France. Among other concessions Acadia was ceded to Great Britain.

65.—*Under George II.* 1744–1748. European complications once more involved the colonies, but the capture of the fortress of Louisburg, on Cape Breton, was the main incident on this side of the Atlantic. The capture was effected by English and Colonial troops combined; and when peace was concluded by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, France resumed possession of Louisburg.

66.—*French and Indian.* 1754–1763. Territorial aggression was the purpose aimed at by the French, and probably by all parties, in the nine years war which commenced in 1754. During the brilliant meteor-like career of John Law in France, the nation had become possessed of the idea that this continent contained enormous mineral wealth in all parts, and consequently the policy then inaugurated still continued in operation. Territory must be extended wherever possible. The English possessions were not well situated for defense, as they spread over a coast line about one thousand miles long, without facilities for inter-communication and support between the several colonies. The French had cultivated friendly relations with the Indians for almost a century since the first arrival of the Jesuits on Lake Superior, and that gave them command of an immense area of country as well as of very useful allies in such a war as

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was now to commence. The intercourse of Father Marquette with the native tribes was now to become valuable, in a warlike sense, to his countrymen. France was not well prepared for a war, but it seems to have been anticipated that strategic aggressions would pass unheeded, until the troops should be so firmly established in their posts that any operation against them with the limited force available would be fruitless. From Quebec to New Orleans, France had possession; and at many points in the interior there were strong positions, such as could hardly be taken from them without a regular siege and a considerable army. The region west of the Alleghanies, along the Ohio, was debatable land, and the right of the strongest would probably prevail. The outrages inflicted and endured by both sides during preceding wars had created intense animosity, and occasions for quarrel were daily offered. Surveyors on the Ohio, acting under English orders, were seized and detained by French troops, and very soon there was hardly one of the sixty posts occupied by the enemy, that had not some unhappy prisoners of war held in durance without authority. The British had established a post on the Miami; the French, with a largely superior force, broke it up, although there was peace between the two nations, secured as firmly as anything can be secured by treaties. In reality all that was being done was under orders from head quarters, and at the most favorable moment there would be a sufficient force ready to follow up any advantage. Additional forts had been erected at Presque Isle, near the town of Erie, Pa., on French Creek, known as Fort Venango, and twelve miles north of that point, near the site of the town of Waterford, *Fort le Boeuf*. These movements gave much concern to the colonists.

67. — George Washington, already a young man of parts and promise, was twenty-one years of age when Lieut. Gov. Dinwiddie commissioned him to visit the forts last mentioned, and request that they

should be dismantled. The journey through the wilderness from Williamsburg to Lake Erie was full of peril, but nothing daunted the young hero. The French officers were of course acting under orders, and there was no argument but force that would compel them to retire. The commandants were polite, but confident that they could hold their own, and there were many evidences that expeditions were even then afoot, which boded no good to the Colonists. On the return through the wilderness, fully four hundred miles, the horses of Washington and his friend broke down, and they were obliged to continue the journey as pedestrians, during a very inclement season. An attempt on the life of the youthful ambassador only resulted in the capture of the skulking Indian; and a still greater peril was encountered by the upsetting of a raft on which the two companions were crossing the Alleghany river. The reply of St. Pierre, the commandant at Fort le Boeuf, left no room for doubt that within a few months at farthest war would be commenced by one of the two parties.

68. — COMMENCING HOSTILITIES. Early in the spring some English traders were driven away by the French from the fork of the Monongahela and the Alleghany, and a fort was erected at that point. The site of Fort Du Quesne was of such importance that even at that moment a Virginian regiment, with Col. Frye, commandant, and Washington as his second, was on the march to hold the position. Washington, with a corps of observation, was despatched to reconnoitre, the first shot of that long war being fired under his orders. Jumonville, a French officer, lying in ambush to surprise and slaughter the Colonial force, was taken in the rear and defeated by the young Virginian. The Colonel commandant dying, Washington built a stockade at the Great Meadows, and defended Fort Necessity against the French with very great odds, until capitulation was inevitable.

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and Pennsylvania were menaced by the Indian allies of the French as long as Fort Du Quesne remained in the hands of its builders, therefore the fort must be demolished or occupied by British troops. Louisburg, once taken by the Colonists, and abandoned by the British, was, in the hands of the French, a perpetual source of danger to the Newfoundland fisheries, as privateering vessels harboring there and in Acadia, could commit ravages and escape pursuit under the guns of the fort. Quebec strongly fortified gave to Canada the St. Lawrence River. The route to Canada by the Lakes George and Champlain was commanded by the fortresses at Crown Point and Ticonderoga. The fortress at Crown Point was called Fort St. Frederick, and it occupied a very fine position for military purposes. After the British procured possession they spent \$10,000,000 on the fortification. To take such places out of the hands of the French was of primary importance.

70.—BRADDOCK'S COMMAND. The British General to whom was committed the task of capturing Fort Du Quesne, held his Indian enemies too cheaply, and would not be warned by his aid de camp, George Washington. The approach to Du Quesne, in July, 1755, was signalized by the troops falling into ambuscade of Indians, with whose methods of war the regular soldiers were unfamiliar, and they were terribly cut up. Gen. Braddock fell mortally wounded, and his command retired in confusion, their retreat being covered by the Virginian troops under Washington, whose conduct deserves the highest praise.

71.—BRIGADIER GENERAL FORBES' EXPEDITION. Three years elapsed before the British were again ready to move on Fort Du Quesne, this time under Gen. Forbes, Col. Washington commanding the Virginia forces. Braddock lost everything and his own life by recklessness. Forbes, a cautious Scotchman, spent so much time in making roads for his troops that it was near the end of November, 1758, before he came

within fifty miles of the point of attack, and a council of war determined to abandon the enterprise. Washington urged a rapid advance, and led the van himself, guarding against all chances of an ambush, so that on the 25th of November the fort was abandoned by the French, who set fire to the buildings and retreated. The Brigadier General named the captured ruin Pittsburg, in honor of the first William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, the ablest statesman that had ever been Prime Minister in England. The spot which was then the key to American security is now the vast entrepot of her manufacturing greatness.

72. — CONQUEST OF ACADIA. There was but little glory in the proceedings of the British troops in this expedition, as the people were driven ruthlessly from their homes, which they had made no effort to defend, and therefore they should have been treated as non-combatants. The forts at *Fond de la baie*, now rendered Bay of Fundy, were not capable of vigorous defense, and with their fall the whole region east of the Penobscot became British.

73. — Louisburg was the next point to be carried, and Gen. Loudoun was to have made the attack in 1757, but after much preparation he abandoned the project and remained at Halifax. Gen. Wolfe and Gen. Amherst, afterwards Commander in Chief, captured the city and fortifications at Louisburg in 1758, after a sharp bombardment; but the island was not made the rendezvous for the British forces.

74. — A FRUITLESS BATTLE. When Gen. Braddock was marching to his defeat and death near Fort Du Quesne, Maj. Gen. Johnson, in command of the provincial forces, approached Crown Point. Baron Dieskau, the officer in charge of the French fortress, did not wait to be attacked; he led his forces, with his Indian allies, against Gen. Johnson's camp, and came near destroying the whole expedition. The Commandant being wounded early in the affray, the conduct of the defense fell upon Phineas Lyman, the second in

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command, and with such men as Israel Putnam in the
ranks, fighting as private soldiers, it would have been
difficult to entirely lose the day. Baron Dieskau fell
mortally wounded. The attacking party was routed
completely, but there was no attempt on the part of
the commandant to capture Crown Point. Gen. John-
son was made a baronet, had the thanks of Parliament
and \$25,000, because of the otherwise barren victory,
which he did not improve. This action took place in
September, 1755, and after loitering awhile longer,
building Fort William Henry, he returned to Albany,
leaving a small force in charge of the useless fortifica-
tion. This fort was afterwards taken by the French.

75.—GEN. ABERCROMBIE'S FAILURE. About four
months before Fort Du Quesne fell, in November,
1758, Gen. Abercrombie, a British officer, ordered an
assault upon Ticonderoga, unsupported by artillery,
and it was noticed that he was conspicuous by his ab-
sence during the fruitless assault. The General was
properly removed from the command soon afterwards.
The attack was a disastrous failure.

76.—OVERCOMING THE DIFFICULTY. Gen. Am-
herst, with a large army, compelled the evacuation of
both Ticonderoga and Crown Point by the French in
1759, and thus another step was obtained towards
security for British Colonial America.

77.—General Shirley was to have captured
Fort Niagara in 1755, but having reached Oswego
with his forces, he was discouraged because of the de-
feat of General Braddock, and after building a fort,
which was afterwards captured by the French General,
Montcalm, with a quantity of valuable stores, he left
a garrison, to become prisoners, and returned. Four
years later, in 1759, General Prideaux compelled Fort
Niagara to surrender and the west was fully possessed
by the British and Colonial forces.

78.—WOLFE AND MONTCALM. The summer of
1759 saw two able and brave men pitted against each
other at Quebec. General Wolfe, with a large naval

force and 8,000 troops, arrived off Quebec, designing to attack and capture that city and fortress from a French force equal to his own, in a strong position, commanded by a gallant and entirely competent officer, General Montcalm. The city was destroyed without difficulty, by bombardment, but the citadel on the Heights, beyond the plains of Abraham, seemed to defy all possibility of capture. Wolfe, sick in bed, revolved many schemes, but none promised success, until a careful *reconnaissance* revealed a narrow pathway up the precipitous rocks, and by that road he led his troops to victory. The shore was guarded by sentinels, but a device prevented a premature alarm and the soldiers were on the heights ready for battle before daybreak, on the 13th of September, 1759. Montcalm was almost paralyzed by the audacity of the assault, but as soon as it became evident that it was an attack in force he used all the means at his disposal to destroy the assailants. Both commanders fell mortally wounded. Wolfe, thrice struck, died on the field of battle, and Montcalm followed him within twelve hours. The steady conduct of Wolfe's troops was in marked contrast to the precipitancy of the French soldiery on this occasion and a bayonet charge which Wolfe proposed to lead in person, decided the contest. Quebec garrison and city capitulated five days after the ascent of the heights to the plains of Abraham, and this event more than any other contributed to bring the war to an end. The pathetic courage and skill of General Wolfe, with the devotion of Montcalm, divided the admiration of mankind.

79. — WILLIAM PITT'S POLICY. The capable and bold man who had conducted the war to the point just seen was wise enough to be aware that France would not lose Canada without a final effort, consequently when, in 1760, there was an attempt to recapture Quebec, a powerful and well appointed fleet was dispatched in time to defeat the movement. Montreal was taken and all Canada came under British sway.

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Spain ceded Florida, and France gave up her territo-
ries east of the Mississippi to England, except certain
small fishing stations south of Newfoundland. New
Orleans and the country west of the Mississippi, held
by France, was given to Spain, and Louisiana re-
mained to be dealt with later by Napoleon.

80.—THE OTTAWA CHIEF. Pontiac represented
better than any other Indian of his time the deep hold
that the policy of the French had taken upon the
tribes. The insolence and *hauteur* of the British
Officer and troops roused in the Indian nature all that
was least lovely, while the polite and friendly bearing
of the Frenchman had made allies in all directions.
The difference being constitutional, there is no ground
for wonderment that the same result has been experi-
enced by all the leading Frenchmen from Father Mar-
quette and the Baron La Salle to Moncalm dying at
Quebec. Soon after the French forts were surrendered
to the English, Pontiac, chief of the Ottawas, an able
and very treacherous man, proposed to the several
tribes a combination against the enemy, so that they
being taken unawares, might be despoiled of all their
possessions. Many forts were carried by sudden assaults
and other devices. Detroit was to have been the
grand stroke, and Pontiac presided there in person,
but the night before the attack an Indian squaw to
whom the Governor had been kind revealed the con-
spiracy. Pontiac and his braves were to wait upon
the Governor as a delegation, apparently unarmed,
but really with their muskets shortened for the pur-
pose hidden under their mantles. The chief was to
make a complimentary speech, and at its conclusion
offer a belt indicative of friendship to the doomed
officer, but the manner differing from the customary
method was to be a signal for the warriors to carry out
their scheme of slaughter, by killing the Governor
and his household first, and then proceeding to the de-
molition of the settlement. The delegation was re-
ceived, but every man surrounding the Governor was

armed ostentatiously, and while Pontiac was speaking, the soldiers on guard in the ante-room were heard handling their weapons so that the wary Indian was afraid to carry out his design. The bait was presented to the Governor in the manner indicating peace and the design was frustrated. The Governor in reply accused the Indians of treachery, and when they protested that he had been deceived, he pulled aside their dresses showing their concealed weapons in confirmation of his statements. Seeing that they held a safe conduct, he permitted them to escape, but the Indians foiled in their immediate scheme regularly besieged the city and the attempt only failed because the allied tribes lost confidence in their leader. Their schemes were successful in eight cases, and their victims were destroyed without mercy. Besides the forts taken, many settlements were ravaged, but eventually Pontiac still intent on vengeance was stabbed by an Indian who wished to end the series of disasters that he was bringing upon the tribes. The war ended with a treaty in which nearly all the Indians concurred.

81. CONSEQUENCES OF TRAINING. While these wars lasted the colonies hitherto divided by distance, and in some degree by petty jealousies, learned to know and to respect each other, so that although thirty thousand men were lost in the several conflicts and consequences, the force that remained was stronger in proportion and more ready for the work that must be done. The cost of the several undertakings had aggregated about \$18,000,000 and only about \$5,000,000 of that sum was paid back by Great Britain, still the balance was taken in training and the money was well spent. Many who might have been first class Tories, but for experience, were completely cured by contact with British officers who looked superciliously upon every man however brave unless he had the manners and angularities of the regularly trained military man. The colonists learned their strength all the better for having fought side by side with the regulars, and they

Pontiac was speaking, the room were heard the wary Indian was the belt was presented indicating peace and Governor in reply and when they protested pulled aside their weapons in confirmation that they held a safe escape, but the Indians were regularly besieged because the allied order. Their schemes and their victims were the forts taken, but eventually Pontiac was killed by an Indian in the disasters that he was the war ended with a Indians concurred.

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had acquired a taste for liberty which might easily be induced to take a wider range than a mere change from the rule of France or Spain to the rule of another foreign country. Many young officers, who had come through the wars with credit to themselves and with advantage to the country, had found their greatest advantage for all patriotic purposes in the fact that they had become weaned from a sentimental loyalty which misled others in the day of trial. Such men as Washington, Gates, Putnam, and others such as they were in spirit, had been so often compelled by their patriotism to endure annoyances from the British Forces, that even while they suffered, they grew strong for the greater work toward which they were progressing. While the war lasted they were content to pay taxes levied by their own democratic assemblies, but once that struggle had ended, they were more than ever determined to act upon the principle that taxation without representation is tyranny.

82. — REVIEWING THE SITUATION. There was leisure after the war, for men to consider the circumstances in which they stood. There was no longer an enemy at their doors stirring the worst blood of the Indians to spoliation and rapine, and the animosities which had separated the different nationalities from each other were gradually sinking to rest. Men were becoming neither British, French, Swedes nor Dutch, but American, and in that sentiment there was true patriotism. The colonies, thirteen in all, numbered little short of two millions at the close of Pontiac's war, and there was but a small remnant of the religious rancour which at one time stirred souls against each other, so that there was more room for the consideration of the claims of all mankind to equal justice in matters social and political.

83. — Learning commenced to take root in the soil of America from the first landing in December, 1620, at Forefathers Rock, as the people were deeply impressed with the value of their sacred literature, and nine

colleges, besides numerous schools, had been already established in the colonies, the endowment for Harvard from the funds of the colonists commencing when the New England settlement was only sixteen years old. Such institutions were due to the people themselves in every instance save that of one college. Consequent upon a love for learning and zeal for the instruction of the community, came an early demand for the labors of the printing press, which in the year, 1639 was brought into operation in Cambridge, and upon the accession of King James II, was especially interdicted by Royal proclamation. Most of the books published then were theological effusions, chiefly sermons, but in 1690, the first newspaper appeared in Boston, bearing date Thursday, September 25. The first number of "*Publick Occurences*" contained so many sound truths, that the government censured Benjamin Harris and suppressed the issue after only one paper had been circulated. "The "*News Letter*" was published in Boston in 1704, and among some others, the best paper of those early days, the "*New England Courant*," published by James Franklin, and written for by the compositor, his brother, Benjamin Franklin, came into existence in 1721, in the same town. The number did not very rapidly increase, but the influence of journalism was felt extensively. Besides the library at Harvard, and some small beginnings in other colleges, there was a public circulating library in New York. The first action for libel tried in the colonies was an attempt to suppress the *New York Weekly Journal*, in 1735, but the effort was defeated by the jury. There was no newspaper in Virginia until 1736, and then it was a government organ.

84. — Industries and Manufactures were identified with the commencement of the New England Colonies, and even in Virginia, where such employments were less kindly embraced, necessity compelled the settlers to work or starve. Agriculture commanded first attention, and even the Indians

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learned something in that direction, as one of the tribes,
having procured a supply of powder, planted it as seed,
expecting to reap a harvest of ammunition. Some
kinds of manufactures rudely carried on were prose-
cuted from the beginning of the colonies, and in Bos-
ton, shipbuilding dates from the first year. Cloths
and cloth weaving, shoes, paper, hats, farming imple-
ments, furniture and cutlery, were manufactured, al-
though there was a long series of complaints that Eng-
lish manufactures were injured by such action. Com-
merce was crippled by the operation of the English
Navigation Laws, which were supplemented by regu-
lations under which it was provided that the produc-
tions of the colonies must be shipped to England in
British vessels only, and that no manufactures nor
supplies of any kind should be sent into any colonial
port except through the intervention of English ves-
sels, sailing from the ports of that country. These re-
strictions were not rigorously observed by the colo-
nists, but wherever the government was strong enough
the system was enforced. Besides these important in-
dustries, the fisheries off Newfoundland were improved
as far as possible, and whaling enterprises to the far
north were also undertaken.

85. — Travel and Traffic between the colonies come
next in importance to industries and intellectual cul-
ture, and are identified with each. For a long time
journeys were made on foot, on horseback or by means
of coasting sloops. From New York to Philadelphia
was a three days' trip with fair winds, and a wagon
ran twice a week between New York and different
localities in New Jersey. It was an immense improve-
ment when conveyances, called "flying machines" for
their speed, in 1766, made the journey from Phila-
delphia to New York in two days, and a stage route
from Providence to Boston occupied the same time.
The postoffice had been inaugurated and its influence
was so highly appreciated, that Franklin, when Post-
master General, occupied five months in his carriage,

traveling through the c . . . to perfect the arrangements of his department. . . . He took an extra horse with him for occasional service. The monthly mail was commenced in 1672, between Boston and New York by way of Hartford, Connecticut.

86.—Sumptuary laws and customs reveal the life of a people, and New England lived by line and rule. Scriptural teaching was the standard of conduct, ministers were the recognized censors, and were themselves above reproach for some time. Cards and games were prohibited, sabbath breaking was an offense, and a man who shot some birds on Sunday was whipped. Tavern keeping was strictly under surveillance, and drunkards could not buy liquor. Connecticut forbade tobacco to youths under twenty, nor could any one indulge more than once in twenty-four hours, and he must then be distant from any residence. The clothing to be worn by the different classes was regulated in regard to their wealth and condition. Grand dames rode pillion with their husbands, theological questions were engrossing topics, and a reproof in church was the ultimatum of social severity. The manners of New York closely approximated in simplicity to those of New England *plus* a trifle more of sociality which remains crystallized in the custom of new year's visitings.

87.—The plantations in the southern colonies, wherein large estates and numerous servants, often negro slaves, made the rule, had an effect in changing the manners of the people. The negroes had their own quarters and were kindly treated generally. Tobacco was the staple production, and the planter made his own establishment serve every purpose. He shipped his own tobacco to agents in London, ground his own flour from corn and wheat, raised by his slaves, his bondsmen were taught such trades as he required in operation, luxury was the rule among such men, labor fell more and more daily into disrepute, hospitality was the rule everywhere, and display became

to perfect the arrangement took an extra horse. The monthly mail was between Boston and New York at.

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the southern colonies, numerous servants, often had an effect in changing the negroes had their own property generally. Tobacco and the planter made his money by it. He shipped to London, ground his own sugar, raised by his slaves, his property as he required in the rule among such men, and into disrepute, hospitable, and display became

the fashion in dress, furniture and equipages, stamping characteristics upon a people which may yet be seen in action.

88.—Schools and teachers were obliged to labor under difficulties in the southern colonies, as the governors appointed from England were opposed to such innovations upon the rule of ignorance, especially for the working class. Free schools were denounced in connection with printing presses by Gov. Berkeley in Virginia with great emphasis, but in Maryland, under the rule of the Baltimore family, there were free schools in 1696, and in 1712, Charleston, South Carolina, followed that example. Private schools were more generally established, and church rule was ample for all purposes. The minister had a farm of one hundred acres and a share in the best corn and tobacco first gathered. Nonattendance at church, or disrespectful words to the minister, were offenses punished among the slaves by whipping and deprivation of food, with cumulative sentences of terrible import. Even freemen were held under heavy restrictions in many parts, fines being substituted for corporal punishments. Slave owners in Georgia were liable to a penalty of \$25 if they failed to send their slaves to church.

89.—Massachusetts and Connecticut esteemed education next to religion itself, and with the colonists life was a worthless burden unless sanctified by worship. The endowment of Harvard University, then known as a seminary at Cambridge, by the town of Boston, when the settlement was only six years old, tells its own story, unsurpassed in the world's history. The invested funds of the institution, besides the grounds, buildings, libraries and other property, amounted in 1873 to \$2,750,000. Since 1642, there have only been five years without a graduating class; nearly 13,000 persons have received degrees there, and fully half that number are now alive. The people at one time when money was scarce, contributed from

each family a peck of corn, or one shilling, towards the college. Education was provided for every age; in 1665, every town had a free school, and every considerable town a grammar school; besides which, there were town meetings for general discussions, which every freeman was expected to attend. In Hartford, Conn., those who failed to be present, unless excused, were fined. Yale College was founded in Connecticut in 1700, being first established at Saybrook, and the library afterwards removed to New Haven.

90. — New York, Delaware and Pennsylvania were not behind the other colonies in solicitude for early training. The countrymen of Erasmus loved books, and there were many schools in New York in which English was reckoned among the accomplishments. Princeton College had made an excellent start, and in 1768 had an Orrery to teach as to the movements of the heavenly bodies, such as no European College could then excel. Among the Quakers and other nonconformists at Lewiston, Del., the first Colonial School for girls had its origin; and among men of the same class in Pennsylvania in 1683, before Penn returned to England, a Commercial School was inaugurated, the fees being two dollars per annum. Before the arrival of the founder of that colony, the Swedes had places of worship, and every denomination made provision in its own way for preachers and meetings. Wampum, beaver skins, and sometimes tobacco, served as currency for the payment of the salary of minister or teacher, but in no case was it known that the colonists omitted to provide fairly for education and worship.

91. — SPIRIT OF THE AGE. The newspaper press generally confined itself to local matters and news until about and after 1745. Such men as the Franklins, and Zenger who was tried for libel at the instance of the government, were rare exceptions; but after 1745, revolutionary ideas began to find utterance. Samuel Adams became a journalist in Boston in 1748,

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but the printer having been imprisoned, the publica-
tion was suspended. The "Boston Gazette," which
came out in 1755, plainly indicated the desire of the
colonists to be left untrammelled by Great Britain.
Samuel Adams and John Adams, Mayhew, Otis, War-
ren, Cushing, Dexter, Austin, Cooper, and others of
that stamp, fought every abuse through its columns.
This marked a new era in the value of the press, and
the spirit thus indicated compelled the British Gov-
ernment to repeal, in 1766, the odious stamp act which
had become law in March, 1765. The tyrannous
designs of George III, and the fatal subserviency of
his ministers, could not rest at that point, the King
being resolved that he would compel the colonists
to pay taxes to the mother country; and, in 1767, the
duties on tea, paper, glass, and on other commodities,
having been imposed, the battle of public opinion con-
tinued with increasing vigor. The duties could not
be collected, and, in 1768, British troops were sent to
Boston, but notwithstanding every endeavor, the du-
ties were afterwards abolished by the British Parlia-
ment. Exasperation had become almost unbounded;
many of the newspapers suggested an appeal to arms
as a means of redress against the oppressions of gov-
ernors and troops, and the years 1773-4 were signal-
ized by momentous events. The Tea Riot in Boston
took place in the year first named, and the latter year
saw assembled in Philadelphia, on the 5th of Septem-
ber, the first "Continental Congress." The Boston
Port Bill was the immediate cause of that Congress,
the declaration of rights its first outcome, and prox-
imately the Independence of this Nation is due to those
events.

X. THE REVOLUTION.

*After the Continental Congress, 1774, to the Declaration of In-
dependence, 1776.*

1. -- THE BEGINNING OF THE END. Growing ex-
asperation on both sides left but little hope that there
would be a peaceful end of Colonial difficulties, after

the Declaration of Rights had been adopted, although there were many parliamentary precedents for such action on the part of English subjects; but unfortunately George III was more nearly absolute than any king had ever been in England, since the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII, and his hatred of America already verged upon insanity.

2.—Oppressive enactments crippled every branch of trade, in the hope that the depletion of the Colonies would enrich the mercantile, manufacturing and shipping interests of the mother country. The navigation laws were not stringent enough to secure the desired ends and there were additional restrictions which were gradually narrowing the industries of the Colonists to a point, at which they must have become agriculturists only, without permission to sell their products anywhere, except in England, taking therefor such wares as manufacturers in that country would send, at any prices they thought fit. The yoke was unbearable. The small beginnings of that iron industry, on which modern nations must base their civilization, were common nuisances in this country in the sight of English lawmakers, and all manufactures were prohibited. Edmund Burke and the Great William Pitt, now become Earl of Chatham, manfully upheld the cause of the Colonists, one in the House of Commons and the other in the House of Lords, but nothing availed as against the will of the king.

3.—The Retrospect of the Age shows an accumulation of wrongs under which patience would have been a crime. Every pretext was availed of in some districts to annoy men in their homes and business, unless they were known to be subservient to the authorities. King's officers could enter any residence, or store, under warrants known as "writs of assistance," to search for smuggled goods. This power was used to an extent that almost seems incredible, but perhaps some of the officials were desirous to be bought off.

4.—The Stamp Act had been repealed, but not

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before it had worked a terrible state of feeling among the Colonists. Newspapers, documents to have force in law, and printed pamphlets as well as other matters which it would be tedious to particularize had to bear a government stamp before publication, and many newspapers just struggling to live were compelled to suspend while the act remained in force. The Colonists met the attack with a peculiar energy. When it became known that a man had accepted office as the British Stamp Agent, he was visited by a delegation in many instances, and so completely overawed that he forthwith resigned his office. Houses were attacked, supporters of the exaction were burned in effigy, and stamps were destroyed whenever a capture was made. Associations were formed, pledged to wear no clothes but such as could be produced in the Colonies, nor to consume any article of English manufacture. "Sons of Liberty" were enrolled in all the colonies, and in some the organization was very powerful. The aspect of the people, no less than the eloquence of their leaders, gave evidence that the system would not be endured, but when the parliament, much to the disgust of the king, receded from their enactment they yet affirmed their right to tax the unrepresented Colonies.

5. — BOARD OF TRADE. Boston had earned already a leading place among the leaders, and, in consequence, when the British Government proceeded to the next act of taxation, a Board of Trade to sit in Boston was nominated, having authority above all colonial assemblies. The tolling bells, days of mourning, minute guns, suspended business and other signs of determination which, by moral force mainly, had rendered the stamp act inoperative, were now to be treated with disdain, and troops were sent to enforce the laws. The mutiny act would have compelled the colonists to give quarters and food to the soldiery, but, one after another, the colonies, by their representative assemblies, refused obedience. New York led the van

in such vindication of the rights of the people, and the assembly was immediately disfranchised. Massachusetts backed up New York by sending an appeal to the other colonies, inviting union, and nearly all the colonies asserted that taxation without representation meant tyranny. Parliament in vain called upon the people to abandon the position, from which no show of right could dislodge them.

6. — Gen. Gage, the last Governor of Massachusetts appointed by George III, had, previous to 1774, visited Boston, being chosen by the government to enforce the odious provisions of the mutiny act. The struggle seemed to be as of Boston against all England, and Samuel Adams was Boston. Gen. Gage came with his troops, marching to martial music, with colors flying, through Boston streets one Sunday morning. Demanding quarters, and being refused, he took possession of Boston State House. Boston Common was made into a military camp, cannon were planted to command the town, and everything indicated a state of war. Quarrels were common between the younger citizens and the soldiery, and, during one of these encounters with the City Guard, two young men were badly wounded and three killed. This event, known as the Boston massacre, was the signal for a general rallying of the colonists of Massachusetts, and it was thought best that the soldiery should retreat to Castle William until the effervescence subsided. The soldiers engaged in the *melee* were tried for murder, but John Adams and Josiah Quincy defended them, and all save two were acquitted; the two being convicted of manslaughter only.

7. — Faneuil Hall was crowded during the evening of December 16, 1773, by men who were determined that the obnoxious tea duty should never be collected in America. There were three ships in the harbor laden with tea, and the agents were willing to send it back to England, but the British authorities refused to grant permission for the departure of the vessels.

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All the duties except that on tea had been abandoned, but that impost was insisted upon to affirm a right. English traders were now so anxious for peace, that they reduced the price of the commodity so that the tea delivered in Boston, inclusive of duty, would cost less than it had ever cost the people before; but it was a question of principle, not of price. From other ports the tea was only returned, and the same course was to have been pursued at Boston but for the stubborn refusal of the officials to grant clearances for the ships. The conclusion was only made known that night, and the Boston Tea Party, disguised as Indians, boarded the ships, emptying 342 chests of tea into the harbor. There was no attempt to conceal the fact that the Indian costume was only a disguise, as one of the party conversed with Admiral Montague on the subject, immediately after the operation had been effected, and before his war paint had been removed.

8.—The new Governor of Massachusetts came to Boston, May 17, 1774, as the English government thought Gen. Gage precisely the man to carry out their scheme of vengeance against the headquarters of the rebellion. Boston port had been shut against all commerce by act of Parliament, and much distress was being experienced. Virginia, by its assembly, denounced this act of oppression, and was immediately dismissed by the Royalist Governor. The popular side in the struggle took the name of Whig and the opposition set were Tories. Minute men were enrolled, ready to assemble and fight for the cause at one minute's warning. The Governor, alarmed, commenced the fortification of Boston Neck, and it became more evident every day that there would be a war and a Continental Union.

9.—CONGRESS IN PHILADELPHIA. Under such auspices the first Continental Congress assembled in the City of Brotherly Love, and every colony was represented except Georgia, the youngest of the thirteen. Independence in the broader sense was yet only the

dream of a few. The Congress denounced the presence of a standing army; sustained Massachusetts in its resistance, disclaimed the recent acts of the English government, and resolved to hold no intercourse with the mother country. The rights of the colonists were to be upheld, but the men forming the Congress believed that so much could be affected without breaking the connection.

10. — FIRST BLOODSHED. The Governor of Massachusetts, having ascertained that there were military stores at Concord, belonging to the people, concluded that he would procure them for his own use or destroy them, and an expedition of eight hundred men, under Col. Smith, was detailed April 19, 1775, for that purpose. The people started off messengers to rouse the minute men, and a signal lantern on the steeple of North Church called assistance from considerable distances. Lexington was one of the rallying points of the colonial forces, and when the Britishers arrived there they found almost a company of minute men assembled on the village green. Maj. Pitcairn, second in command of the Royalists, ordered the people to disperse, and upon their declining to do so, a battle ensued, in which seven of the Americans were killed. The troops pushed on to Concord and the stores were hastily destroyed, as it had now become evident that the retreat to Boston must be conducted through a country swarming with minute men, impatient to avenge the blood spilt at Lexington. Every point that could give shelter to a marksman, trees, rocks, buildings, fences, inequalities of surface, were all turned to good purpose by the Colonial troops, and three hundred redcoats fell before the remainder were rescued by reinforcements from Boston. The war had commenced, and as the news, carried by swift messengers, coursed through the land, men left their work in the fields unfinished to hurry to the scene of conflict. Israel Putnam, an incorruptible brave man, was one of the earliest recruits, and he was in Boston almost as

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soon as the retreating regulars, leaving his cattle yoked in the field. There was no longer a vestige of authority in the hands of British Governors from Massachusetts to Georgia, further than their troops could compel obedience. Twenty thousand men worked at the intrenchments that were to shut up Gen. Gage and his forces in Boston. Congresses were formed instant in all the colonies, to consider the situation, and committees were duly authorized to call out the troops should emergencies arise. Gov. Gage had commenced a war which he did not live to see fought out to its glorious result.

11.—BUNKER HILL. The Colonists were determined to see the matter to an end, or perish in the attempt, and Col. Prescott was chosen to command in the first regular engagement. The President of Harvard prayed at the head of the troops before they started from Cambridge to fortify Bunker Hill, and they worked through the bright moonlight until morning, when their earthworks were completed. They had preferred Breed's Hill for their fortification, as they found it more commanding, and so silent had been their labors, although within hail of the sentinels in Boston, that the British troops knew nothing of their proceedings until they saw the redoubt fully constructed June 17, 1775. Sir William Howe commanded an attack, and three thousand men ascended the hill to within ten rods of the redoubt without being molested. The Colonel had given orders that the defenders should not fire until they could see the whites of their opponents' eyes, and they were soldierly enough to obey his orders. At the proper moment the word "Fire" was heard, and consentaneously every rifle vomited forth its messenger of death. The redcoats, immovable as a wall one second before, had fallen in their ranks or were in rapid retreat when the smoke lifted. They had anticipated nothing so terrible as that act of slaughter. The village of Charlestown, set on fire by Gov. Gage, was the rallying point of the regulars, and having re-

formed there, the troops once more breasted the hill. The deadly volley met them as before, and they were compelled a second time to retire; this time so shattered that they could not renew the attack without reinforcements. Had the patriots possessed a sufficiency of ammunition the whole force under Howe's command would have been insufficient to dispossess them, but their weakness consisted in that lacking. When the third assault was made there was only powder and ball sufficient for one volley, but that was delivered with emphasis and terrible effect. The British troops paused for a moment, and then finding no repetition of the sanguinary salute, charged over the earthworks at the point of the bayonet, and the patriots, having no weapons but their clubbed muskets, were compelled reluctantly to retire from the scene on which they had already immortalized the name, American. Twice the British had come in contact with the continentals, whom they professed to despise, and although on each occasion they had won a nominal success, the *prestige* of victory had remained with the patriots. Before this engagement, and after the battle of Lexington, the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts had, in May, 1775, declared Gen. Gage unworthy of obedience, and he had responded in June by a proclamation offering pardon to all rebels, except Samuel Adams and John Hancock. The same document established martial law. Four months after the battle of Bunker Hill, Gen. Gage was relieved of his office by Sir William Howe, and returned to England, where he died within two years.

12.—ETHAN ALLEN. Within one month of the Battle of Lexington, the fortress of Ticonderoga, so often assaulted in vain by regulars and volunteers combined, was surprised and captured by a body of volunteers under Col. Ethan Allen and the afterwards infamous Benedict Arnold. The commander was in bed when Allen demanded his surrender, and there was nothing possible in the way of resistance. The

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officer demanded in whose name the force of Green Mountain Boys had made the demand, and Col. Allen replied: "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress." Crown Point was captured soon afterwards, and the Continental forces were thus made masters of large cannon, small arms and ammunition. There was not one life lost in the expedition.

13.—GEN. WASHINGTON. The second Continental Congress assembled at Philadelphia on the day of the capture of Ticonderoga, May 10, 1775, and it was concluded that twenty thousand men should be raised for the war, to serve under the orders of Gen. Washington, Commander-in-chief. A petition to the King was adopted at the same time, but George III refused to receive the document. The Commander-in-chief proceeded to the camp before Boston, and there found about 14,000 men, ill clad and worse armed, many of them unfit for the service which they had taken up on the impulse of the moment, and of which they were already heartily sick. Very few knew anything about drill or discipline, and there were only nine cartridges per man in the magazine with which the War of Independence was to be fought. Gen. Washington did all that could be done under the circumstances, and Gen. Gage remained enclosed in Boston.

14.—INVASION OF CANADA. In the autumn of 1775, Gen. Montgomery led a force by the way of Lake Champlain now open to the operations of the colonists, took St. Johns and Montreal, appearing before Quebec in December, where he was joined by a band of men almost famished, led by Gen. Arnold. The new comers had ascended the Kennebec and made a road through the wilderness to the point of attack. The two forces joined were less than one thousand effectives; but with this small body a siege was maintained for three weeks, until an assault was thought practicable, and in a blinding storm of snow the forlorn hope advanced by two divisions, one led by Gen. Montgomery, the other by Benedict Arnold. Unfortunately the

chief in command fell mortally wounded, and yet more unfortunately, Arnold fell wounded, but not mortally, as he survived to tarnish a name which might have been saved from disgrace by an early death. Gen. Morgan who succeeded Arnold in the command, was hemmed in on all sides and compelled to surrender; and the little army, after maintaining a blockade of the city until spring, retreated on the approach of British troops, to reinforce the garrison.

15. — CONTINENTAL SUCCESSES. Gen. Washington steadily pursued his purpose all through the winter of 1775-76, to bring his army into form and to compel the British to evacuate Boston. Dorchester Heights were fortified during the night of March 17, 1776, and in the morning the troops in the city saw an opportunity to repeat the experience of Breeds Hill; but a storm prevented action at once, and every hour of delay made the earthworks more complete. Gen. Howe saw the necessity for an instant retirement with his army and fleet before worse happened, and many of the Tories accompanied him. Boston was thus relieved from the insolent oppression which had been endured for eleven months, and the Commander-in-chief was received with much joy, as an earnest of the triumph which few doubted would be achieved for the colonies.

16. — Admiral Parker, with a British fleet of nine sail and 270 guns, appeared off Charleston Harbor, June 28, 1776, and finding a fort of Palmetto logs on Sullivan's Island, with earthworks carrying 26 guns, the Admiral bombarded the fortification. Col. William Moultrie who was in command of the fort used his forces so well, that although Gen. Clinton with a considerable body of troops cooperated with the naval contingent and tried an attack in the rear, the assailants were beaten off with considerable loss. This glorious exploit was commemorated in the best possible way by naming the position Fort Moultrie, and strengthening the works. The report of this victory

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was well received all over the colonies, and it came
opportunely.

17.—THE GREAT DECLARATION. While Boston
was being abandoned by the British troops, and in the
south the naval arm of Britain was sustaining a defeat,
Congress had been deeply pondering the problem
which demanded solution; and on the 3d of July,
1776, by a majority of one Colony, a resolution, intro-
duced by Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, was carried,
affirming that: "The United Colonies are and ought
to be free and independent States." Thomas Jeffers-
on, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sher-
man and Robert B. Livingston, were appointed to
draw up "The Declaration of Independence," and at
two in the morning of the eventful Fourth of July,
the great charter of the liberties of a nation of free-
men was ratified by Congress, the report of the com-
mittee being adopted. The people of Philadelphia
had been intensely anxious all the day as to the out-
come of the debate, and when the news was at length
promulgated, the bell in the steeple of the old State
House joyfully rang out the tidings, which the people
reechoed in all directions. The old bell is now pre-
served as a curiosity, bearing the prophetic motto:
"Proclaim liberty throughout all the land, to all the
people thereof."

XI. THE AMERICAN NATION.

*From the Great Declaration, 1776, to the Constitution of the United
States, 1787.*

1.—THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE. Signing the
Declaration of Independence was an act which left
for the men who had taken that step no retreat.
They must conquer the liberty towards which they
aspired or sink under the punishment awarded to reb-
els, by a King such as George III was known to be.
The men who had already drawn the sword could well
afford to throw away the scabbard, and as the event
proved, the liberties of the people were in good hands.

2.—Gen. Washington, with seven thousand men fit

for service, turned his attention toward New York as soon as Boston had been freed, and he was correct in his anticipations that the British Commander in Chief would make a descent in that quarter. Gen. Howe proceeded from Boston to Halifax where he refitted, and then sailed for New York. His brother, Admiral Lord Howe, joined him there with a fleet and reinforcements, which when joined to the troops commanded by Gen. Sir Harry Clinton, gave an army of 30,000 men. The government had sent by the Admiral powers to treat with the Americans, but they were to be dealt with as revolted Colonists, not as a free and independent people. An officer was sent to the American camp with a letter addressed to George Washington, Esquire, but the Commander in Chief of the armies of the United States refused to receive a communication which failed to recognize his office and rank, and the messenger after many attempts to overcome the difficulty carried back the letter.

3.—The first defeat sustained by the American troops occurred on Long Island, where Gen. Putnam with nine thousand men held a fort and defenses on the hills south of Brooklyn. The enemy advanced in three divisions, one of which unobserved turned the flank of the defenders and assailed them in the rear. Our troops, although outnumbered, were fighting bravely when the sound of firing from the third division of the attacking force told the Patriots that they were surrounded. The carnage was terrific, as of the 5,000 men engaged, 2,000 were slain, or taken prisoners, to endure a fate almost worse than death. The fort at Brooklyn was not attacked immediately, as the fleet was required to cooperate in the assault, and a delay of two days gave our troops an opportunity to retreat. During the night of the escape, a negro servant, sent by a Tory to inform the British of the movement, was captured by Hessian troops—hired from Hesse Cassel for the war—and they unable to comprehend his message detained him until the morn-

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4.—Strategic Movements were now the order of
the day, as the enemy well furnished with all the mu-
nitions of war, and much more numerous than our
troops, could not be assailed with safety. Gen. Wash-
ington had taken up a strong position on Harlem
Heights, and the British commander in chief did not
dare an attack, but the movements of the enemy obliged
Washington to withdraw to White Plains, where part
of his army was defeated; with the remainder he occu-
pied a strong camp at North Castle, and Howe pru-
dently retired to New York. Fort Washington, which
stood where 181st and 186th streets now are, was taken
by the Hessians, Nov. 16, 1776, after a very obstinate
defense, with 2,600 prisoners. Our army, small from
the first, was now hardly 3,000 strong, and it was
necessary to retreat into New Jersey to resist a march
on Philadelphia. Lord Cornwallis, with 6,000 troops
in good condition, followed the shoeless ranks of the
Army of Independence for three weeks, until Wash-
ington crossed the Delaware into Pennsylvania. Gen.
Lee, who was slowly following the commander in chief,
was taken prisoner by the enemy during this retreat.
The boats on the Delaware had been secured by the
Patriots, and Gen. Howe concluded that he would cross
that river on the ice as soon as practicable, to follow up
his successes by taking Philadelphia. The villages
along the river were occupied by his troops, and he
waited for his opportunity. This was the darkest mo-
ment in the war. The troops were outnumbered, dis-
heartened and ill supported, and the strong places were
falling or had fallen into the hands of the enemy; but
the sun was still shining behind the clouds.

5.—VICTORY AT TRENTON. Christmas night, 1776,
was made memorable by an event, which reanimated
the soul of liberty throughout the United States.
There was a terrible storm, so severe that men were
frozen to death that night, when Washington recrossed

the Delaware with 2,400 men, and attacked the Hessian troops in Trenton, killing their leader and capturing 1,000 prisoners, with a loss of only four of his own men. The surprise was perfect, and when Washington returned to his camp after that victory, the prospects of the patriot army had improved wonderfully. Recruits came in daily, men whose term of service had expired, remained; and Lord Cornwallis, who was to have carried to England the news of the almost complete extinction of the American army, was recalled by his commander in chief to enter upon a winter's campaign. The light of battle was in the eyes of the people.

6.—PRINCETON VICTORY. Washington recrossed the river, January 3, 1777, at the same point, and established himself at Trenton to await the coming of Cornwallis. The Royalist forces came up about sunset, and attacked our little army, but they were repulsed with some loss, and the British general resolved to wait until morning. He had no cause for hurrying; there was no escape for the troops under Washington; they should all be taken in the morning, as his force was enormously superior, and they were shut in by his lines, and the impassable river. Washington was no sluggard, and neither his troops nor himself could sleep that night. The watch fires burned brightly along the whole line, and behind that wall of flame, the patriot army moved noiselessly away with forty cannon, over the newly frozen country roads, which a few hours before were impassable. The British troops at Princeton were entirely unprepared for an attack, when the Americans fell upon them, and routed the force, capturing three hundred prisoners, with whom the General marched to Morristown Heights, without pausing. Lord Cornwallis arrived at Princeton, too late to redeem the fortune of war, and his foes were beyond his power. The praise of Washington was on every lip, and all that winter he harassed the British, until New Jersey was all but rescued from their arms.

The British troops prepared for an attack, then, and routed the prisoners, with whom John Heights, without aid at Princeton, too near, and his foes were at Washington was on harassed the British, and from their arms.

9.—NORTHERN SUCCESSES. There was better news coming in from the north, where an army of 10,000 men, under Gen. Burgoyne, was to have demolished the cause of liberty. The General took com-

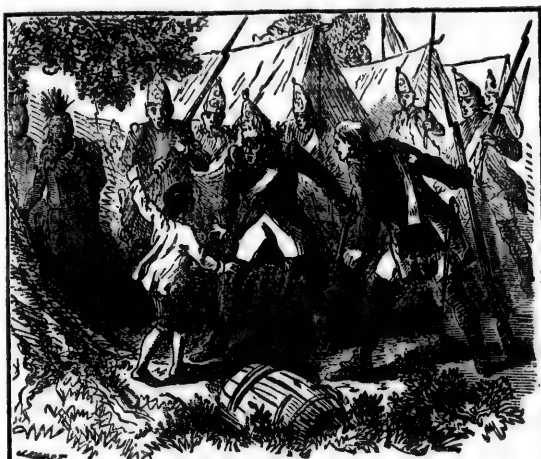
mand in Canada in the summer of 1777, and in June commenced his march, attended by about 2,000 Indian allies. His army was exceedingly well appointed, and much was expected from his abilities. The forts at Crown Point, Ticonderoga and Edward were captured immediately, and the supplies at Whitehall were taken; the small body of men under Gen. Schuyler being utterly disproportioned to the force under Burgoyne. The roads were obstructed, bridges destroyed, and such work as untiring valor found possible was accomplished, still the enemy advanced, and the outrages of the Indians, more than even the loss of the forts, roused the people to participate in the war. From all the surrounding states militiamen were arriving, and daring officers, such as Lincoln, Morgan and Arnold, were sent to watch the advance. Schuyler is sympathized with because he was superseded by Gen. Gates just at the moment when his schemes approached fruition; but he was too much a patriot to allow that circumstance to dampen his ardor. The army, speedily formed, was drilled as rapidly, and a position on Bemis Heights was fortified under the direction of the brave Thaddeus Kosciusko, who was to fight for liberty on both sides of the Atlantic.

10. — BRITISH REVERSES. Burgoyne had not found affairs exactly to his mind, although he had found no army ready to attack him. Col. St. Leger was to have taken Fort Stanwix, and after ravaging the Mohawk Valley, rejoin the General at Albany. Benedict Arnold, with an inferior force, was dispatched by Schuyler to create a diversion in favor of the fort and the valley, and he contrived to fill the British troops with the belief that a large American army was close at hand, so that by a ruse he came into possession of their cannon and camp equipments, and defeated their expedition without striking one blow. Another party was detailed to seize the American supplies at Bennington, Vt., but Gen. Stark and a body of militiamen defeated the foragers, taking nearly 600 prisoners.

AMERICA.

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THE ALARM AT FORT STARWIX.



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11.—BATTLES OF STILLWATER. Burgoyne suffered for the want of reinforcements and supplies, and his troops were becoming demoralized, so that it became necessary to make some vigorous movement; hence he attacked Gen. Gates' strong position on Bemis Heights September 19, 1777. The battle raged all the day long, but it was not a decisive victory for the Americans, and at night both armies retired to their respective camps, and no further engagement has to be recorded until October 7th. The camp of the British troops had been kept in continual alarm, but no attack in force had been attempted. Gates waited for some false move on the part of Burgoyne, and the British General had come to the point where he must win a victory, surrender at discretion, or starve. He preferred fighting, and a last desperate effort was made. It is claimed that the success of the American arms on the second day's work at Stillwater, sometimes known as the Battle of Saratoga, was due to Benedict Arnold, who was undoubtedly brave; but in any case the victory this time was unquestioned. There was a vigorous charge on the British line of attack, and the soldiers were driven back to their camp, where the Hessians fled in confusion, after firing only one volley.

12.—SURRENDER AT SARATOGA. The defeated General fell back to Saratoga and there deliberated upon the chances of war. Provisions were scarce, and dangers hemmed him in on every side, nor was there any hope of reinforcements. The cannon on Bemis Heights commanded the camp and a surrender was the only course that could be suggested by a council of war. The Indian allies, once so wily, had nothing to suggest, and the Tories had already taken their departure, so the General made the best capitulation possible under the circumstances, surrendering 8,000 men with all the material for an army of twice that number, to the comparatively raw levies at Saratoga. The news from the north compensated the Union for the misfortunes that had befallen Philadelphia.

13. — SUFFERINGS IN VALLEY FORGE. There is an adage that the darkest hour is that before the dawn. Winter in Valley Forge was very dark indeed. Continental currency had so depreciated that it was no longer current. Clothing, food, weapons, even physical strength seemed to have been exhausted and death came as a relief to brave men who had vowed themselves to the cause of freedom. The endurance manifested by Washington and his brave followers in that fearful season of trial was more truly heroic than to win unnumbered battles with the advantages of wealth and complete equipment. The men who struggled through the winter of 1777-8, under Gen. Washington, were sustained by the courageous example of their leader and by a consciousness of the purity of the cause for which they were suffering.

14. — Benjamin Franklin, whose efforts in England not averting the necessity for war, had long since been sent to the court of France, where he speedily became very popular, and the dreary winter was enlivened as it drew towards its close by news that France had acknowledged the Independence of the United States, and would despatch a fleet to assist in vindicating the rights of the country.

15. — BATTLE OF MONMOUTH. Gen. Washington was surrounded by men who would die for him, but there were among his officers, not a few, who in their wrongheaded obstinacy imperiled his best laid schemes. Gen. Lee was a man of that condition. After the conclusion of the campaign of 1777, Gen. Howe returned to England, and Clinton assumed the command. That General, having learned that the French fleet, under D'Estaing, was approaching, he resolved upon concentrating his forces, and New York was to be his center. Washington followed him across New Jersey, and the two forces met at Monmouth, where, just at the moment when victory was imminent, Gen. Lee commanded a retreat; fortunately the commander-in-chief was on the ground and he

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Gen. Washington d die for him, but t a few, who in their ed his best laid n of that condition. paign of 1777, Gen. Clinton assumed the g learned that the s approaching, he re- cees, and New York ington followed him forces met at Mon- nt when victory was a retreat; fortunately the ground and he

changed the fortune of the battle by his personal in- trepidity. The engagement lasted all the day, and in the darkness of the night Gen. Sir Harry Clinton made a hasty retreat to New York.

16.—Count D'Estaing arrived with his fleet, and it was arranged that he should cooperate with the army under Gen. Sullivan, in an attack upon the British forces in Newport, Rhode Island; but just at the time when the combined operation was to have been carried out, Howe, with the British fleet, arrived off the har- bor, and the French commander went out to meet him. The storm, in which both fleets were involved, dam- aged the ships so badly, that both Admirals put back for repairs, and there was no further aid from France during the campaign of 1778; but the presence of D'Estaing prevented Howe entering the Bay of Narra- gansett just when he might have cooperated with the forces under Gen. Clinton.

17.—THE VALLEY OF WYOMING. The scalping knife and the tomahawk seem more terrible than at any other time when civilized races summon their aid. The massacre of Wyoming illustrates the sickening barbarities which are under such circumstances likely to give a new horror to war. The men who were ca- pable of taking part in the war were mostly engaged in the field, when Butler, commanding a band of To- ries and Indians, entered the Valley of Wyoming. There was a fort in which the women and children found refuge, and the old men and youths bravely fought the invaders, but they were outnumbered and defeated, and every torture that malignity could devise was expended upon them by the Indians before they were put to death. The fort was surrendered upon conditions that were shamelessly disregarded, and the whole valley was desolated, the survivors flying for their lives through the wilderness.

18.—THE CAMPAIGN OF 1779. *Southern Vicissi- tudes.* Georgia, the youngest of the states, was made the scene of British operations in the latter part of 1778.

Savannah and Augusta fell immediately and the whole state was overrun, so that there was once a Royal Province and a British Governor for a brief term on this continent. Clinton seemed to have despaired of success in the more populous states, and therefore his attentions were directed against a comparatively defenseless section of the Union. Charleston, S. C., was the next point of attack, but the siege under Prevost was precipitately raised on the approach of an American force under General Lincoln, and Prevost returned to Savannah. The recapture of Savannah was gallantly attempted in September, 1779, by Lincoln in combination with the fleet under the French Admiral, but a thousand lives were lost in an attack after a severe bombardment of the city, and the Count D'Estaing then refused further assistance. The patriots blamed him very severely for his conduct. The brave Pole, Pulaski, found a grave here, and his services with the Legion bearing his name were, at a later date, commemorated by a monument in Savannah.

19. — Northern Operations under Clinton were little other than savage acts of spoliation, where no defense was possible and where no military advantage followed his course of action. Norwalk, Fairfield and New Haven, Conn., were plundered and set on fire, and the work of destruction was made as complete as possible. Wherever a few men could be gathered to make a show of opposition, the predatory bands were kept from giving a taste of their quality. General Putnam rendered good service to our cause and distinguished himself at Horse Neck, operating against Tryon this summer.

20. — Stony Point was captured by General Wayne with a force of eight hundred men, with the aid of a negro who was in the habit of visiting the fort and knew the countersign. The colored patriot led the attacking party by a route well known to him, and, advancing alone to the sentinel, gave the word, after which he remained conversing with the soldier until he could

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be surprised and prevented from giving an alarm. From that point the troops passed over the causeway and reached the hill undiscovered. About midnight the assault was made with every precaution to secure silence, but the attacking party was fired upon by the first picket of the fort and Wayne was one of the first wounded, but at his own request he was carried at the head of his column and the capture was speedily effected. The defenders lost six hundred men in killed, wounded and prisoners, besides the fort and its contents.

21. — Chastising the Tories and their allies, the red men, was the task allotted to Gen. Sullivan in the Genesee country, and the Wyoming massacre was not forgotten. There was a battle near Elmira, N. Y., and the enemy received a crushing defeat, after which the American force laid waste the Indian villages.

22. — John Paul Jones, whose real name was John Paul, rendered effectual service to the cause of the union on the sea. The naval service was necessarily small, but it consisted of able and daring men, in small vessels generally fitted out as Letters of Marque and privateers, and within the first three years of the war five hundred British vessels had been taken along the coast. The naval department had no more active and enterprising man than Paul Jones, who ravaged the coasts of Great Britain. After several noteworthy exploits, Jones procured a French vessel which he named *Le Bon Homme Richard*, in honor of Benjamin Franklin's genius, and with that vessel captured the *Serapis*, an English Frigate, in every way a better ship than his own, and carrying heavier guns. Our ship was old and rotten before the French gave her to Paul Jones, but she was made seviceable until the *Serapis* had been taken in a desperate hand to hand encounter, and from that time the British vessel was sailed by Paul Jones, under our flag, a terror to English commerce. The pride of the mother country was more touched by such exploits than by the surrender of an army.

23. — Charleston, S. C., was again attacked in 1780, and this time an overwhelming force by land and sea compelled a surrender, after a bombardment and siege of forty days duration. Gen. Lincoln managed the defense admirably. Cornwallis sent predatory parties under Tarleton and other such leaders, to distress the colonists in all directions, and terrible brutalities were perpetrated.

24. — BURGOYNE'S CAPTURE. Gen. Gates took command of the southern army, but his conduct in this campaign favors the idea that his previous success was not due to his own energy. Gates planned a night attack on Cornwallis, near Camden, and the British, who had entertained a similar project, for the same time, were met in the woods marching to surprise the American camp. After skirmishing in the dark for a time, both forces waited for day, and the advantage of the encounter was entirely on the side of the enemy. Baron De Kalb, Major General of the force, and second in command, fell mortally wounded on the field, and his comrades were overpowered fighting bravely. The militia fled, and Gates was nowhere during the engagement. The Union force in the south was entirely broken up.

25. — PATRIOT LEADERS. The defense of the south became little other than a guerilla warfare. Marion, Sumpter, Lee and Pickens rallied the most daring men in the Carolinas — North and South, and British detachments were cut off in all directions. Some garrisons were captured, and a system of reprisals, rendered necessary by the conduct of Tarleton and the Tories, made the country very warm during the continuance of British rule. Some of the patriots were so poorly armed that they depended largely upon procuring the weapons and ammunition of their enemies. Such tactics prevailed at Hanging Rock, August 6, and at King's Mountain, October 7, in both of which engagements the patriots were victorious.

26. — Unlimited inflation had been the policy of

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Gen. Gates took but his conduct in at his previous success y. Gates planned a ar Camden, and the milar project, for the ds marching to sur- r skirmishing in the ted for day, and the entirely on the side Major General of the ll mortally wounded re overpowered fight- and Gates was nowhere ion force in the south

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Congress in all monetary concerns from the first, and \$200,000,000 issued by authority, could be bought for \$50,000,000 specie. Currency would hardly buy necessary articles, and the soldiers were unable to procure boots with their pay. The British government helped the financial muddle by circulating counterfeit notes, and, in some districts, the troops were at the point of famine. Robert Morris, of Philadelphia, sent 3,000,000 rations to the army, and relief associations were formed, but the distress was so imminent that Pennsylvania troops, to the number of 1,600, left the camp at Morristown to secure redress by force in Philadelphia. Sir Harry Clinton, whose spies were everywhere, improved the occasion by offering bribes to the revolting Union soldiers as a premium for desertion, and numbers of these creatures were handed over to the authorities by the men whose poverty they hoped to corrupt. A congressional committee speedily pacified the clamor by showing that they were doing all in their power to carry the war to a successful conclusion.

27. — ARNOLD, THE TRAITOR. While the soldiery were suffering heroically, and in the main without complaining, Benedict Arnold meditated an act of treason unsurpassed in the world's history. His bravery had long been his only recommendation to employment, and he never suffered want if it was possible to rob the men serving under him, or anybody else; he had now married a Tory, and was living with his wife in great style in Philadelphia. Charges of a grave nature were proved against him, and it became necessary that he should be publicly rebuked by the Commander in Chief. Gen. Washington performed his duty as gently as circumstances would permit, in consideration of Arnold's services, but the disgrace was keenly felt by the unprincipled man, and he sought an opportunity to revenge himself upon his country. Having by solicitation procured the command of West Point, under the pretense that he wished to redeem his

character, this position, the most important in our possession, he at once offered to Sir Harry Clinton for a price, and the terms of the infamous compact were arranged without delay. The plan of surrender required an interview with an agent above the status of an ordinary spy, and Maj. André, an English officer much respected, passed the American lines to complete the details. The British sloop Vulture conveyed him up the Hudson to West Point, but fire having been opened on the vessel, she dropped down the river, and André was under the necessity to return overland to New York. The papers were concealed in his dress, and André reached Tarrytown on his return, when three men, Paulding, Williams, and Van Wart, seized him on suspicion. Knowing that one American officer was corrupt, André thought he could procure his release by bribes; but his offers convinced the men that they had obtained a valuable prize, and he was conveyed to the nearest post. A safe conduct from Arnold was looked upon as a forgery, and the officer in command was on the point of sending André to West Point as a prisoner, but providence intervened. A note from the officer conveyed to Arnold the intelligence that his treason had miscarried, so that he had time to escape on board the Vulture, at a point lower on the Hudson, and he detained the boatmen as prisoners. The price obtained by the traitor was about \$32,000 and a colonel's command in the English army; but officers of standing would not associate with him, and he was continually insulted to the end of his life, although protected by the king. André, sympathized with by all classes, was necessarily hanged as a spy, and the Union service was happily purged of a brave and able, but most iniquitous officer in the desertion of Arnold.

28. — CONCLUSION OF THE WAR — 1781. Gen. Greene succeeded to the command which had been demoralized by Gates, and found only about 2,000 men in the last stages of destitution. The Battle of

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Cowpens was fought by a part of this force under Gen. Morgan, who was attacked on the 17th of January, 1781, by Col. Tarleton. The militia retreated in confusion, and the Continentals made a retrograde movement to secure a strong position. Tarleton thought the whole force was routed, and his soldiers rushed forward to annihilate the Colonists, but our troops, facing about at the word of command, delivered a destructive fire at point blank range, and the British colonel was completely defeated, many prisoners being taken. Lord Cornwallis was desirous to retrieve this disaster, but Morgan retreated into Virginia, carrying his spoils with him, and the Catawba, just swollen by heavy rain, prevented an instant pursuit.

29.—Gen. Morgan was now joined by the Commander, and the retreat from this point was conducted by Greene. The weather favored our forces. Just after the Yadkin had been crossed by the patriots, the river was so swollen that Cornwallis was forced to make a detour before passing the stream. The start thus obtained saved Greene's command from absolute demolition by a superior force. The patriotism of the South was proved by many noble deeds of self sacrifice during this campaign, and when at last the fords of the Dan were crossed before Cornwallis could come up to dispute the passage, the British commander abandoned the chase. Gen. Greene won and deserved the unanimous thanks of Congress for his masterly conduct.

30.—FIGHTING CORNWALLIS. Greene wanted a respite only for his men, and he had given them confidence in his and their own powers. We find him at Guilford Court House, March 15, 1781, fighting against great odds, but now the assailant. The militia did not stand fire, but the continental troops held their own splendidly, and although there was not a victory, Cornwallis retreated to Wilmington pursued by Greene immediately afterwards. The force under his command being insufficient to invest Wilmington,

Greene now joined Marion, Sumpter, Pickens and Lee in South Carolina, and harassed the English until Georgia as well as South Carolina were almost entirely free from the troops of the oppressor. The enemy was so broken by the battle at Eutaw Springs, September 8th, that they retired upon Charleston, South Carolina. The commander of the enemy, relieved from the presence of Greene, made a raid into Virginia, and although the Tories made many demonstrations, the regular war in the south had come to an end, although Charleston was not evacuated until the following year, 1782.

31.—NORTHERN OPERATIONS. Arnold, the Traitor, was in Virginia, covering himself with infamy by his brutal endeavors to prove his usefulness to the enemy. La Fayette, with an inferior force, held him somewhat in check until Cornwallis, coming from South Carolina, assumed the command, and continued, with a much greater force, the same horrible system of butchery, plunder and destruction. Gen. Clinton, Commander in Chief, recalled Cornwallis from his marauding expedition in the interior, directing him to keep near the coast ready to cooperate in a scheme of defense should Washington attack New York, and in consequence that officer fortified himself in Yorktown.

32.—COMBINED ATTACK. Our French allies and our own forces now proceeded to hem in Cornwallis at Yorktown. Washington assumed the offensive at New York, so that Clinton believed himself in momentary danger of an assault, until the commander in chief was drawing near his actual point of attack, and on the 28th of September twelve thousand men were before Yorktown. Batteries were opened immediately, and red hot shot and shells fired the shipping in the harbor. The American force carried one redoubt, while the French troops carried another, and the finest spirit of emulation made every soldier equal to the work of two men. The walls were soon breached, and

Hampton, Pickens and harassed the English. Carolina were almost the oppressor. The battle at Eutaw Springs, ended upon Charleston, leader of the enemy, Greene, made a raid into the south had come to an end evacuated until the

S. Arnold, the Traitor, helped with infamy by his usefulness to the enemy. He, held him somewhat coming from South Carolina and continued, with a horrible system of action. Gen. Clinton, and Cornwallis from his interior, directing him to cooperate in a scheme of attack New York, and fortified himself in York.

Our French allies and to hem in Cornwallis at the end of the offensive at York. He believed himself in no danger until the commander in chief arrived at the point of attack, and five thousand men were engaged immediately, and the shipping in the harbor carried one redoubt, and another, and the finest soldier equal to the task were soon breached, and

an assault was imminent, when Lord Cornwallis followed the example of Burgoyne and capitulated on the 19th of October, 1781.

33.—SURRENDER OF YORKTOWN. Gen. Washington commanded that the sword of Cornwallis should be delivered to Gen. Lincoln who had been compelled to surrender Charleston, and the captive army, 7,000 strong, marched out from the fortifications with cased colors and arms shouldered, between the two armies, French and American. Cornwallis escaped the humiliation of being present by a convenient fit of sickness, but the defeat was entire and complete, and every person felt that the war had come to an end. There was great rejoicing in every patriot heart, but the Tories and the traitors were eaten up with an ignoble rage. Hardships, until now all but unbearable, were swallowed up in victory; joybells were ringing, and the watchmen in the streets announced the intelligence with tears of thankfulness as they made their nightly rounds in the city of Philadelphia. Men awakened from their slumbers, rushed to the windows to be sure. Congress assembled very early in the morning, and in the afternoon succeeding, marched to the Lutheran church, where the *Te Deum* of thanksgiving from full hearts ascended to the God of Battles, for signal mercies vouchsafed to the youngest nation on the globe; beginning then and there a career of prosperity unexampled in all time. England saw that the conquest of such a people was impossible, and the populace demanded that the ministry which had advised on the war should be dismissed. The House of Commons denounced further action, and George III was compelled by his weakness to submit to the demands of justice.

34.—AFTER THE WAR. The greatest peril that ever menaced a country was now pressing upon the United States, although the war was virtually ended. There was no commerce, no trade, no manufactures; and agriculture had long been neglected because of

the war, which, since the battle of Lexington, had decimated the people and unsettled all avocations. Many, who were wealthy when the struggle commenced, were now penniless, and the currency which had been forced into circulation for some time past would buy nothing. The army was almost in open rebellion because there was no prospect of their services being acknowledged by the scanty pay to which they were entitled, and without which they could not, in many cases, reach home. Under similar circumstances, during the Commonwealth in England, the Puritan soldiers compelled the Parliament to succumb to their demands, and their action made Cromwell Dictator; but Congress contained men of a higher type than the Parliament that was dismissed by Cromwell, and the incorruptible patriot Washington was superior to the promptings of ambition. Petitions to Congress for redress could not be answered from an empty treasury, and the angry troops offered the crown to the Commander-in-Chief, but the influence of the great and good man prevailed with both parties to prevent violent measures, and every difficulty was accommodated by his intervention, so that there was no period of internecine strife to encourage the English government to resume hostilities from the points which were still in their hands.

35.—TREATY OF PARIS. Peace long since established (January 20, 1783), and the Independence of the United States substantially recognized by all the European governments, was formally inaugurated by the treaty signed in Paris, September 3, 1783. The army was disbanded, and the Commander-in-Chief carried with him to Mount Vernon such devotional regard, as has been increasing in the hearts of mankind ever since that day, for a ruler of priceless integrity.

36.—ABSENCE OF AUTHORITY. The colonies had suffered so much from British tyranny and exactions that there was in every breast an undue jealousy of

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governmental strength, and, in consequence thereof, Congress possessed too little power under the articles of confederation agreed to by the states. An advisory congress was found to be an utter failure, and the debt incurred by the management of the Revolutionary War could not be dealt with save by an authoritative body, but Congress could levy no taxes and, of course, possessed no funds. Shay's Rebellion, which aimed at the subversion of the general government, was subdued by the militia under Gen. Lincoln, in New England, but the weakness and inadequacy of Congress was admitted on all hands. It was necessary to make a strong Congress, such as could enforce the will of the whole people, yet such as could not become an incubus upon the population.

37.—SOLVING THE PROBLEM. Philadelphia was the city chosen for the assemblage of a convention to revise the articles of confederation, and Gen. Washington was chosen president of the assembly. The whole of the states, except Rhode Island, sent delegates, and the deliberations were at times anything but calm and conciliatory; but, after much debate, the Constitution of the United States was adopted by that body, on the 17th of September, 1787, and the work of organization having been carried out during the following year, after a sufficient number of the states had ratified the articles to give them the force of law, the Constitution was brought fully into operation in 1789. Four of the states delayed their ratification for some time; Rhode Island did not accept the Constitution until 1790, but North Carolina, Rhode Island and the rest came under the operation of the law notwithstanding.

XII. RECENT HISTORY.

Washington and the Republic. 1787-1797.

1.—REVIEWING THE POSITION. It might seem that there is no warrant for placing the time which elapsed from the adoption of the constitution to the inauguration of the first President, under Washington's

name, but he was the President of the Philadelphia convention in 1787, and his moral power, more than the influence of any other single individual, ruled the Union from the close of the war until he was elected President of the United States in 1789. His inauguration, on the 30th of April, was an almost unanimous outburst of gratitude toward the twofold deliverer of his country. He had expelled the foreign foe, and he had saved the nation from the tyranny of an armed dictator. His journey from Mount Vernon to New York, the temporary capital, was an ovation, and the people would have crowned him with flowers in every village. His oath to support the Constitution of the United States was taken on the balcony of the old Federal Hall.

2.— Want of Funds constituted the first difficulty with which the government was obliged to contend. The treasury was empty, and the experiment of a democratic republic being new, the moneyed men of the world had no credit to bestow upon novelties. The Indians were hostile, and there were no forces save the unpaid militia to hold them generally in check. Our navy could not protect our merchant vessels from Algerine corsairs. The navigation of the Mississippi was under Spanish control, and that nation refused us the right to travel on its waters. The whimsical hatred of George III prevented the nomination of an English minister to this government, and there was no treaty of commerce between the countries.

3.— GRASPING THE NETTLE. Washington called around him the men of leading minds, who represented all parties in the Union, and firmly holding them together, proceeded to arrange the affairs which his government must reduce into order, or fail entirely. Jefferson, Hamilton, Knox and Randolph were associated with him in the cabinet.

4.— THE TREASURY. Alexander Hamilton, the Secretary of the Treasury, induced Congress to assume the liabilities incurred by the several states during the

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war of Independence, and to pay the national debt in its totality. Funds were raised for the purposes of government, by duties on imported goods, and an excise on distilled liquors. Philadelphia was made the home of the United States Mint, and of a National Bank. The vigor exhibited in these measures established credit. There was, in 1794, an organized opposition to the tax on spirits in western Pennsylvania, but 1,500 militia men subdued the riot, and the strength of the government was fully established.

5.—TRIBAL DEPREDACTIONS. The Indians had defeated two armies, sent for their subjugation, in the northwest, but the appointment of Gen. Wayne to the command was the signal of better action. The wiser Indians counseled peace, but a long career of rapine induced the majority to dissent, and the battle of Maumee was the consequence, August 20, 1794. The Indians were routed and destroyed, their towns laid waste for fifty miles, and they were glad to purchase peace by a treaty whereby they surrendered the territory now forming Ohio and part of Indiana. Wayne was a terror to the Indians.

6.—FOREIGN DEBTS. England complained that moneys due from citizens of the United States could not be collected, and the answer might justly have been, Your government, by its tyrannous action, has destroyed our means of payment, therefore look at home. Individual Americans did say as much, and called attention to the fact that American seamen were still subjected to impressment on the high seas, as well as that posts were held on the frontier, as at Detroit and elsewhere. To arrange the matters in dispute, Chief Justice Jay went to England as Envoy Extraordinary, in 1795, but the treaty made by him excited much discontent among all classes, as it gave England all that was demanded, and secured no equivalent. The Senate became very unpopular because of the ratification of the treaty, and its advocates fell under the censure of the public.

7.—The Mississippi was opened to our ships by a treaty with Spain in 1795, which also defined the boundaries of Florida. The Dey of Algiers was obliged to release Americans prisoners, detained by his government, and, under a treaty made with him, the commerce of the Mediterranean was made safe and practicable for American vessels.

8.—The French Revolution and the European war, which was the consequence of other nations intermeddling with France in matters peculiarly domestic, appealed to the sympathies of the American people with great force; but Washington and his Cabinet could not see cause for this country to rush into a war on that account, and the neutrality of the United States was preserved as nearly as possible under the circumstances. Genet, the French Ambassador to this country, fitted out privateers in our ports, and appealed to the people against the President; but the minister was recalled upon Washington's representations.

9.—NEARER HOME. Washington could hardly keep the peace between contending parties in his own Cabinet. Jefferson associated with Madison, and Randolph led the Republican party in the country, opposing the assumption of state debts by Congress, the English treaty negotiated by Jay, and the establishment of a national bank. Alexander Hamilton and John Adams, able men and high principled, led the Federalists who supported Washington and desired a strong central government. Hamilton was rather a Monarchist than a Republican. Washington might have been reelected, but he declined a third term, and in the contest between parties, Adams was elected his successor by two electoral votes over Jefferson. The nation had made very wonderful advances during the administration of Washington, but the General was only too much pleased to resign the authority which he had borne for so many years.

Adams and the Republic. 1797-1801.

10.—STRONG GOVERNMENT. John Adams was

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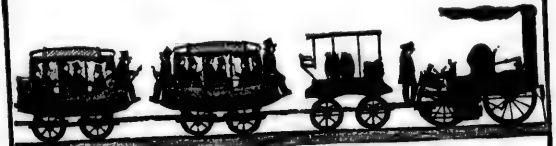
John Adams was



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.



MARQUIS DE LA FAYETTE.



THE FIRST RAILROAD TRAIN.



A FORTIFIED MOUSE.



THE CHARTER OAK.



MARQUIS DE LA VAYE.



TRAIN.



THE CHARTER OAK.

entirely a man of strong measures, and immediately after his assumption of office he esteemed it necessary to repress the license with which the government of the United States was being assailed by residents in the country who thought that America should assist France. The alien and sedition laws were the natural result of the preponderance of his party, and it was now possible for the President to expel any foreigner from the country if he saw such action to be advisable. Under the sedition law, fines and imprisonment were denounced against any person libelling the President or the government. The people hated those enactments.

11.—ALMOST AT WAR. The revolutionary government in France treated this country with marked discourtesy. American vessels were captured and the flag dishonored, and envoys sent to the French Directory were refused an audience. The men who had upheld the cause of France were silenced by that line of conduct. An army was to be raised, and Gen. Washington was nominated Commander-in-Chief; but before any decisive action had been taken, Napoleon became First Consul, and a better understanding immediately resulted. The people had learned the value of nonintervention in European politics.

Jefferson and the Republic. 1801-1809.

12.—ACQUIRING LOUISIANA. Thomas Jefferson was the most brilliant man that ever filled the Presidential chair, and his terms of office were marked by many events of large import for the United States and the world. The acquisition of Louisiana by purchase from Napoleon, in 1803, for \$15,000,000, was an admirable piece of statesmanship. The territory had been in the hands of Spain, and had been a cause of trouble in the early days of the Republic, and France had come into possession under an act of cession made by Spain. This purchase gave to us more than one million square miles of land, out of which ten states, two territories, and parts of other states have been constructed, besides making us masters of the Mississippi.

13.— Aaron Burr, who was Vice President during Jefferson's first term of office, and who had at first the same number of electoral votes for the Presidency as Jefferson himself, 73, was bitterly antagonistic to Alexander Hamilton, whom he challenged to a duel and shot dead. This event made Burr very unpopular, although he was brilliant and very able, as even those who disapproved of many of the measures of Hamilton still admired the man. Burr went west during the second term, and under a pretense of having a design on Northern Mexico, was suspected of an attempt to break up the Union. On that charge he was arrested, and tried after long imprisonment; but the case could not be established. Burr was a man of irregular life, and with all his talents had a wonderful faculty for ruining his friends and himself. He passed some years in Europe and lived to an old age after his return to this country, but in public life he was a nullity after the death of Alexander Hamilton.

14.— ROBERT FULTON'S STEAMBOAT. The first steamboat that ever traveled was the *Perseverance*, built by John Fitch, a native of Windsor, Connecticut, who constructed the vessel in 1787. He constructed a model in 1785. His vessel attained a speed of six miles an hour, on the Delaware, but was subsequently burned. After that event, the next introduction of steamboats is due to the second Presidential term of Thomas Jefferson and the ingenuity of Robert Fulton. The *Clermont* ran for many years on the Hudson, from New York to Albany, being then the only steamboat in the world, and the second ever constructed. The idea was worth more to the United States than Louisiana ten times repeated.

15.— BOMBARDING THE BASHAW. The pirates of the Barbary States had levied tribute upon the commerce of Europe for years, and nearly all the maritime nations submitted to the exaction. Cruisers from Tripoli captured small vessels belonging to any country, and held their passengers and crews at ran-

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som. The United States had conformed to the custom of paying tribute, but, in 1801, the year of the accession of President Jefferson, the Bashaw of Tripoli declared war against this country. The President sent a fleet to bombard the Mohammedan city, and, after a few lessons in the arts of civilized war, the Bashaw, completely subdued, asked humbly for peace. The disgraceful act of paying tribute ceased from that time.

16. — EUROPEAN WARS. The wars of the French Revolution continued with varied success. Napoleon was master of the continent of Europe and England was mistress of the seas. Napoleon sought to destroy the commerce of England by closing all the ports against her, and the carrying trade of the world was largely conducted by the United States. In the crude condition of international law which then prevailed, our shipping suffered from both parties; but England, being more powerful on the seas, injured our commerce more than France, and, besides, that country claimed the right of stopping any ship on the high sea to impress seamen of English birth into that naval service. The power was as monstrous as that exercised by the Bashaw of Tripoli before the bombardment of his capital. The capture of the American frigate *Chesapeake* by the British frigate *Leopard*, off Virginia, brought the quarrel close home, and Jefferson ordered all British ships of war to quit the waters of the United States; but England disavowed the act, and, in consequence, war was not declared. An embargo laid by Congress upon all American vessels, forbidding them to leave port, was very injurious to commerce and was removed, but intercourse with either of the belligerent nations was interdicted. The war fever assisted to secure the election of James Madison, towards the close of President Jefferson's second term, and the Republicans hoped that some occasion would arise to wipe out old scores. The Federalists strongly opposed war measures, and they were a powerful minority.

Madison and the Republic. 1800-1817.

17.—DEFEAT OF TECUMSEH. Great Britain, by her emissaries, had been for some time tampering with the Indians, and the brave and wily Tecumseh saw his opportunity, in 1811, to confederate the tribes in the Northwest against our government. The first great result of his powers of combination was a crushing defeat at the hands of Gen. Harrison, at Tippecanoe, Nov. 7, 1811. The attacking party came upon the American camp by night, but they were crushed completely, with an immense slaughter.

18.—ENGLAND. Everybody saw the hand of England in the Indian war, and the unjust pretensions of that country as to the impressment of seamen continued without abatement. Sailors were taken, ships were captured if any opposition was offered, and vessels of war were even sent into our own waters to make prizes. Sometimes the insolence of the enemy appeared where prudence might have prescribed moderation. The British sloop-of-war *Little Belt* was hailed by our frigate *President*, and the answer was made by firing into our frigate. The *President* spoke the same tongue for a little while, until the bellicose sloop was disabled, after which amicable relations were established. Finally, it became evident that there could be no honorable peace with the English nation until there had been war, and President Madison made the necessary declaration on the 19th of June, 1812.

19.—HULL'S COWARDICE. The invasion of Canada commenced the second war with England, and the conduct of Brig. Gen. Hull is, with the exception of Arnold's treason, the worst record that our military history has presented. That officer crossed into Canada, from Detroit, where he resided as Governor of Michigan, and issued a proclamation to the Canadians while he prepared to attack Fort Malden. As soon as he learned that a force was preparing to attack him, he fled precipitately, and was subsequently followed to Detroit by Gen. Brock and an Indian force under

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1809-1817.

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Tecumseh. The fort at Detroit was sufficiently strong for defense, the troops were ready and willing to fight, and all the material was at hand, when the poor creature raised the white flag, August 16, 1812, under which, without stipulation or condition of any kind, he surrendered Detroit city, garrison and stores, and the whole of Michigan to the enemy. The Governor was court-martialed for cowardice and sentenced to be shot; but, in consideration of his age and services, he was afterwards pardoned.

20.—QUEENSTOWN HEIGHTS. In the autumn of the same year, another invasion of Canada was determined upon, and Gen. Van Rensselaer sent a detachment of troops across the Niagara River to carry Queenstown Heights. The position was won, and Gen. Brock, the commander, was among the slain. The General ordered the rest of his force to support the attacking party, but, to his intense disgust, the militia-men stood upon their state rights and would not go beyond their boundaries. The men who had made themselves masters of the Heights were thus abandoned to their enemies, and, after some desperate fighting, surrendered.

21.—ON THE SEA. While our land forces were thus belying the reputation won by their fathers, the wooden walls of the Nation were sustaining the character for intrepidity and success which was earned for our navy by the prowess of Paul Jones and his contemporaries. The first sea fight was between the American frigate Constitution, Capt. Hull, and the Guerriere, Capt. Dacres, August 9, 1812. The attack was made by the Guerriere and the commander of the Constitution manoeuvred his ship until he had secured the weather gage, whereupon he gave broadside after broadside to his enemy, for nearly two hours. The British ship surrendered when the vessel was so badly damaged that she would not float to be brought into port; so that there was much merit in the victory. The Captain of the Constitution was the nephew of

the Brigadier General that surrendered Detroit and Michigan only seven days later.

22. — BOARDING THE FROLIC. The sloop of war Wasp was cruising off the coast of North Carolina, when she fell in with the English brig Frolic, October 18th, and a desperate engagement ensued, in which the defenders of the British vessel fought until there was not a man left to strike the flag. The Wasp's men boarded the enemy, and to their surprise they found that the only sailor on deck, not prostrated by injuries, was the man at the wheel. There were some compensations for the poor record on land in such deeds of courage upon the sea, and there were fully three hundred prizes taken by our privateers before the close of the year 1812. While these events were transpiring, the presidential term drew near its termination and the people signified their endorsement of Madison's war policy, by reelecting him President.

23. — CAMPAIGN OF 1813. There were three armies in the field and it was hoped that the proceedings of this season would redeem the character of the land forces from the damage suffered during 1812. Gen. Dearborn commanded the army of the center, stationed on the Niagara River; Gen. Hampton, with the army of the north, was on the shores of Lake Champlain; and Gen. Harrison, whose name was already popular, commanded the army of the west. The enemy entrusted the conduct of the war to Gen. Proctor, and the Indian allies were under the command of Tecumseh. Two of the armies and their doings may be summed up in a few words. Gen. Dearborn attacked York, now Toronto, and the assault was being splendidly led by Gen. Pike, when the magazine blew up, killing him and a great portion of his command. The place was captured, April 27, 1813. Dearborn was shortly after succeeded by Gen. Wilkinson, who descended the St. Lawrence with his men, to combine with Gen. Hampton in attacking Montreal. After repulsing the British at Chrysler's Field, there was some misunder-

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standing between the two leaders, and the armies separated without an attempt on Montreal. Hampton was defeated by the British at St. Johns, and then made his way to Plattsburg, where he was reinforced and did nothing for the remainder of the year.

24. — Gen. Harrison, with the army of the west, made a good showing, and the men under his orders felt that they were in good hands. A detachment of his force on the Maumee, under Gen. Winchester, left the fort to render assistance to the people of Frenchtown, who feared an Indian assault. The Indians were defeated, but before he could recover his position his men were attacked by an overpowering force under Proctor. The battle ended in a surrender upon honorable terms, but after the battle the English General, whether thoughtlessly or by design, left the American wounded at the mercy of the red skins maddened by whisky and success. The result made the massacre at River Raisin a terrible war cry among Kentuckians during the rest of the campaign, as the sufferers were mostly from Kentucky. Proctor besieged Fort Meigs, defended by Harrison, but he soon found that the conqueror of Tecumseh knew the art of war, although his force was not strong enough to take the field. From Meigs, Proctor hastened to Fort Stephenson, where the garrison was only 150 strong, under the command of Major Croghan, but he was doomed to a second repulse, and after that event he returned to Canada. Still Michigan was in the hands of the enemy, and Ohio was in danger at many points.

25. — BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE. The naval force on Lake Erie was assigned to the command of Capt. Perry, a young sailor only twenty-seven years of age, who had never seen a naval engagement. Many of the ships that were to sail under his orders were yet to be constructed, and he must win his victory, if there was such an achievement in store for him, against a man who had fought under Horatio Lord Nelson. Commodore Barclay bore down upon Perry's fleet of nine

vessels carrying 54 guns, on the 10th day of September, with six ships carrying 63 guns. The probabilities were all on the side of the largest ships and most guns, but the young commander was a hero that did not know when he was beaten. His flag ship, the *Lawrence*, was attacked by two of the heaviest of the enemy as well in number of guns and men as in size, and he continued to fight until there were only eight men left fit for action. When the last gun had been fired on board the *Lawrence*, he carried his flag to the *Niagara*, passing in a small boat through the British fleet. Hoisting his flag on the *Niagara*, he broke the enemy's line, delivering both broadsides as rapidly as his men could load and fire, and before the countrymen of Nelson knew what the next movement might be, Perry was master of the situation. The dispatch sent by Perry to Gen. Harrison was as good in its way as the brief announcement by Cesar: *Veni, vidi, vici*. Perry said: "We have met the enemy and they are ours." All over the country those words were repeated, and the admiration earned by the young sailor became an impulse to patriotism in every heart.

26. — HARRISON'S VICTORY. The dispatch from Perry found his colleague, Gen. Harrison, preparing for a descent on Canada, where Proctor and his Indians under Tecumseh, fully two thousand strong, occupied Malden, designing to lay waste the American frontier. The General hurried to Malden at once, but the enemy had fled, and he followed rapidly in pursuit. His course from Sandusky Bay had only prepared him for his work. The enemy were overtaken on the Thames, and his dispositions being already made the battle was commenced without delay. Col. Johnson with his horsemen from Kentucky, full of remembrances of the Raisin massacre, charged through the English line and formed immediately in the rear to resume operations. Proctor, on a swift horse, made his escape, and the army surrendered. The Indians were attacked with special energy, and

10th day of September. The probability of the largest ships and most of the heaviest of the guns and men as in the last gun had been discharged, he carried his flag all boat through the Niagara, he fired both broadsides as the next movement of the situation. The Harrison was as good as lost. The enemy met the enemy and country those words earned by the young patriot in every heart. The dispatch from Harrison, preparing the Proctor and his two thousand strong, lay waste the American to Malden at once, followed rapidly in Chesapeake Bay had only The enemy were overpowered without delay. The army surrendered. With special energy, and

Tecumseh fell mortally wounded. That incident was in itself a defeat for the red men, and they fled in every direction, without striking another blow. This victory following so rapidly upon the Lake Erie exploit, ended the war in this section of the country, and the two commanders were spoken of everywhere as the men who were alone worthy to command the armies and navy of the Union.

27.—LOSS OF THE CHESAPEAKE. Capt. Lawrence, of the frigate Chesapeake, was in Boston Harbor refitting his vessel, and was in no sense ready for action when he received a challenge from Capt. Brock, of the Shannon, then lying off the harbor, to come out and fight him. Such a message should have commanded no attention under the circumstances, for half his men had been discharged, and the remainder were unpaid and all but mutinous, so that he could not properly fight his ship, even if she had been thoroughly refitted. Still his error was heroic, and the outcome might have been different had not a hand grenade burst in the arm chest of the ship at the very moment that the Shannon's men boarded her. The slaughter was terrific, but when Capt. Lawrence fell mortally wounded, the last hope of victory was gone. The crew was feeble and disheartened, and the last words of their commander, "Don't Give up the Ship," fell upon the ears of men who were already beaten.

28.—CREEK INDIANS DEFEATED. Tecumseh induced the Alabama Indians to join his murderous league in 1811, and in 1813 Fort Mims was surprised, the garrison slaughtered, and the women reserved for worse tortures than they suffered in seeing their children slain and mangled. The facts of that piece of treachery and horror brought avengers from every quarter, and under Jackson the Indians were pursued from one point to another, until they made a stand on Horseshoe Bend in a fortified position. The troops scaled their works regardless of obstacles, and carried the day at the point of the bayonet. The Creek In-

dians knew that they were fighting for life, and they did all they could to repulse their assailants. Six hundred fell, and the poor remainder made their surrender on such terms as a dog would have disdained. The tribe will long remember the battle of March 27, 1814.

29. — BARBAROUS TACTICS. The British Navy seemed to have learned how to make war among the followers of Tecumseh, for the whole of the southern coast was ravaged by parties of sailors and marines landed from Admiral Cockburn's squadron. Bridges were destroyed, villages burned, crops devastated, and other such acts of savage war were carried out along the seaboard of Virginia and the Carolinas. In the following year, similar tactics were observed on the coast of the northern states. Commerce was annihilated, towns in Maine and Connecticut were captured or bombarded, and on the 24th of August, Gen. Ross marched into Washington, where he burned libraries and public records, private dwellings and stores, and consummated his senseless barbarity by destroying the Capitol. From that point he made his way by the sea to Baltimore, where, on the 12th of September, the forces were disembarked to cooperate with the fleet in another wanton act of spoliation. Fort McHenry was allotted to the fleet, but the attempted bombardment produced no effect, and the troops met with so much resistance on land that the men who had been under Gen. Ross' orders, retired to the ships, and the erasure of Baltimore was postponed. Gen. Ross was killed while reconnoitering on this expedition. On all hands there was indignation and a resolve to wreak vengeance upon the authors of the ruin that was being wrought, and every seaport was speedily fortified to prepare for such assaults.

30. — THE CAMPAIGN OF 1814. Canada was attacked once more; the army under Gen. Brown crossing the Niagara River. Fort Erie was captured; the victory at Chippewa was won by Gen. Winfield Scott

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on the 5th of July, and twenty days later the bloody
battle of Lundy's Lane was fought to a brilliant finish.
The day was closing in when Scott gave Col. Miller
instructions to carry the key of the British position, a
battery on a height. The Colonel headed his regi-
ment, and was soon master of the battery; but the
British knew its value as well as he; three times they
concentrated their force upon its recapture, and as
many times they were driven back in dismay by the
well organized defense, until about midnight they re-
tired from the contest, leaving victory with our in-
domitable troops.

31.—LAKE CHAMPLAIN. Plattsburg was almost
entirely deprived of troops; there were only 1,500 in
the place on the 11th of September; the rest had been
sent to Canada to serve under Gen. Brown, when Gen.
Prevost with 12,000 men, who had gone through the
Peninsular wars with the Duke of Wellington, at-
tacked the town. The British fleet on the lake was
to render essential aid in demolishing the place, and
there was only one obstacle to success: a squadron
of American vessels under the command of Commodore
McDonough. Still there was an obstacle sufficient for
the purpose by land and by lake. The 1,500 soldiers
defended the passage of the Saranac against nearly as
many thousand veterans, and the fleet upon which
Prevost depended was all but destroyed. The Battle
of Lake Champlain has a place in history, but Great
Britain has no poet to sing its praise. The British
Commodore lost his ships, and the General fled with
his army, leaving sick, wounded, and military stores,
in proof of his precipitation.

32.—BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS. The last en-
gagement in this war was fought after peace had been
concluded between England and America. Napoleon,
who had been compelled to abdicate the throne of
France and retire to Elba, was speedily to leave his
splendid prison and reappear in France. England had
probably an inkling of what would happen, if she was

not really in the secret from its inception, and for that reason she wanted peace on this side of the Atlantic; hence the haste with which peace was concluded in the latter part of December, at Ghent, to prepare for the bloodier theatre of war. Unaware that they were already friends with this country, Gen. Pakenham's command of 12,000 men and a powerful fleet advanced to the attack on New Orleans. Gen. Jackson had thrown up entrenchments some miles below the city, and the assailants were met by a destructive fire, but they moved steadily through the hail storm of death. Solid columns opposed to the riflemen of Kentucky and Tennessee were bound to suffer, and the soldiers that had been invincible so long, wavered now. Pakenham fell dead as he was heartening his troops, and his successor, Lambert, continued the battle until nightfall; but the defeat of the attacking party was as thorough as the attack was found to have been unnecessary. The British lost 2,000 men in the encounter, and the defenders only a dozen killed and wounded.

33.—FRUITS OF THE CONFLICT. The treaty subscribed at Ghent did not contain an express abandonment of the British claim as to impressment, but there was a tacit understanding that it would never be again put forward, and that concession justified the war, although the cost to the country amounted to \$127,000,000. The nation had not spent blood and treasure in vain; the powers of her people had been proved by land and sea, and Europe had been taught that it is not practicable for any force to conquer and retain possession of this territory. While the war lasted, there had been an enforced protection of American manufactures, as European shipments had been cut off by the blockade, and when the terrible visitation came to an end, the home made article could hold its own against all honest competition. The resources of the people had not been in any sense permanently impaired, although trade, commerce and specie were strangers in the land, for within twenty years the war

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debt had been entirely cancelled, and the nation was on its way to a wonderful prosperity. The naval preeminence of this country showed that the old Norse blood had not degenerated among the hardy mariners that live upon our coasts. While the war continued, the Algerines took advantage of the trouble to renew their depredations in the Mediterranean, and as soon as the immediate business on hand was completed, a fleet under Admiral Decatur proceeded to Tunis, Tripoli and Algiers to remonstrate with their guns. The pirates liberated every prisoner, made ample indemnity for all losses, and gave such pledges for the future that other nations learned the proper way to deal with persons of that class. There was yet another consequence of the war. The federalists, once strong in the affections of the people, were routed because they would have taken peace at any price, and when Madison's second term came toward its end, another republican, James Monroe, was chosen almost by acclamation.

Monroe and the Republic. 1817-1825.

34. — The Missouri Compromise was an evidence of growth, as there was a time when no such question as the admission or nonadmission of a slave state to the union would have arisen; but in the year 1820, when it was first proposed that Missouri should be admitted, public opinion was already so strong on the subject that nothing short of the promise contained in Henry Clay's compromise, that the limits of slavery were irrevocably fixed, could have satisfied the nation, or procured the admission of Missouri in 1821.

35. — Social progress was manifested under the administration of Monroe by the wondrous recuperative power exhibited by the country just emerging from a peculiarly disastrous war. Internal development, manufactures, steamboat enterprise, and a tendency to expand over the whole continent, spoke of a nation that already felt its destiny as one of the greatest, if not indeed the greatest that is destined to help the

progress of humanity. The era of inventive genius which had dawned upon this country, before the colonies became a nation, was now advancing toward the brightness of perfect day.

36.—CESSION OF FLORIDA. Spain had never much honor nor any profit from this possession since the days of Ponce De Leon, and since the settlement of Georgia there had occurred many opportunities for defending the fort of St. Augustine at considerable expense. In the year 1819, negotiations were commenced with Spain for the purchase of Florida, and in 1821, the treaty was made under which, in the following year, the territory was organized under the constitution. The announcement by the President in a message to Congress, that an attempt by any European nation to obtain a foothold on this continent would be considered by the United States as an unfriendly act, deserves special mention, as the Monroe doctrine, whether avowed or not, must continue to be the policy of this country; and the gradual absorption of the possessions of France and Spain shows that similar views had been entertained for many years by our statesmen. The purchase of Louisiana was effected during the time that Mr. Monroe was our Minister in the Court of Napoleon.

37.—THE NATION'S GUEST. The Marquis De La Fayette, who came to this country in the day of its peril, and stayed until that danger had been surmounted, came as our guest in 1824, and made a more than royal progress through the states, welcomed everywhere. The thirteen states, for which he fought at Brandywine, and throughout the war until the surrender at Yorktown, had grown into twenty-four states, and he also had changed from the young noble, full of generous enthusiasm, to the matured statesman, who had sounded the depths of human existence. He had assisted liberty in his native land until it became license, and then endangered his own life by arresting the dangerous excess. He had dared the anger of

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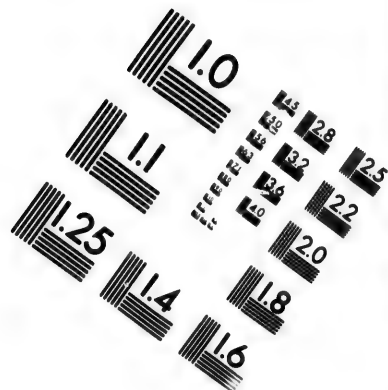
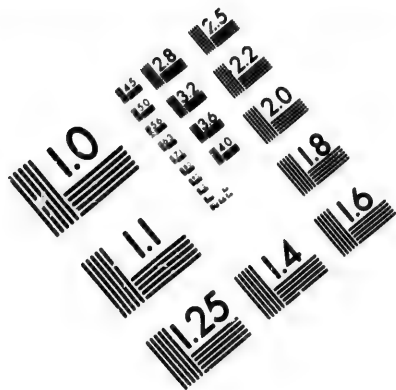
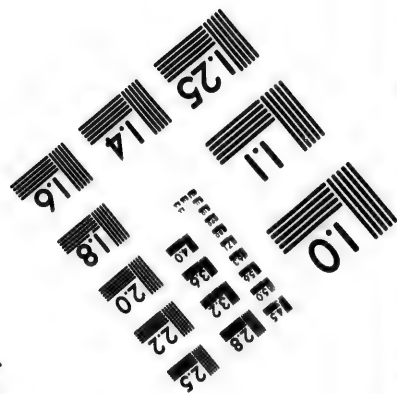
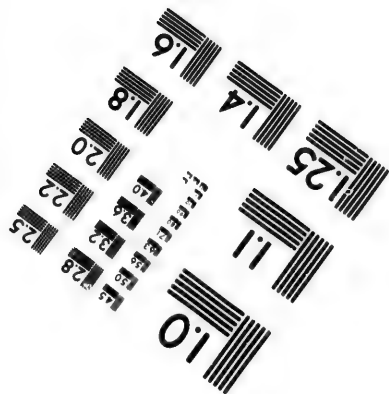
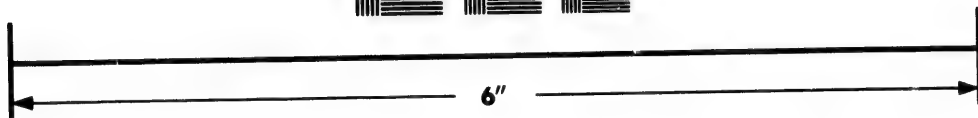
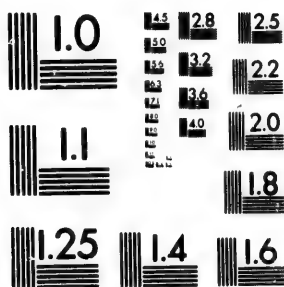


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royalty while it was strong, and generously sustained it when tottering to its fall. He had fought the battles of the people and been compelled to quit his country for conscience sake when his emigration cost him a prolonged and unjust imprisonment. His term of usefulness had not even then been reached, as he was to assist in exchanging the Bourbon proper on the throne of France for the Orleans branch in the citizen king, and in every act of his life to testify the presence of a conscience void of offense, and a heart full of generous emotions. The Marquis was worthy to be the guest of a nation.

38.—**TEMPER OF THE PEOPLE.** The Republican party which had cast down and destroyed the Federalists was gradually being broken into its constituent parts. The ties of party were loosening and a new combination, to become known as the Whigs, was being erected in opposition to the other wing of the old party, thereafter known as the Democrats. John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay, favoring protection and internal improvements, represented the Whig element, and the first named of the leaders, son of President Adams, was chosen as the successor to President Monroe.

Adams and the Republic. 1825-1829.

39.—**PRESIDENT ADAMS** had not a majority of the electoral votes, nor had any one of the candidates, and the House of Representatives gave him the position; hence there was no strong party in his favor, and when his name was put forward as a candidate for reelection, he, like his father, was doomed to suffer a defeat. The protective policy championed by him was peculiarly objectionable to the southern states, and Gen. Jackson, the defender of New Orleans, besides being the nominee of the Democrats, was popular because of his services, among all classes. The east upheld the protective tariff, but it could not sustain John Quincy Adams against such a combination as was arrayed for Jackson. The first railroad in the

United States, and the Erie Canal, date from this term. The war debt was rapidly diminishing, and there was a surplus in the treasury. Public works had been undertaken to an extent never before dreamed of, and at every step the nation was becoming wealthier, because of the wise expenditure of its means. "The old man eloquent" was not to pass off the stage of public life.

Jackson and the Republic. 1829-1837.

40.—ROTATION IN OFFICE was the first innovation due to the peculiar constitution of Andrew Jackson's mind. Washington had surrounded himself with men differing in views because it was his desire to combine the nation. Jackson was resolved to govern, and he would have his own friends and supporters around him, not only in his cabinet but in subordinate offices. Without descending to changes among clerks, there were about 700 removals within the first year, ten times as many as had been made before, since the constitution was adopted.

41.—ENERGETIC ADMINISTRATION. In the third year of Jackson's rule, 1832, South Carolina nullified the tariff, threatening secession if force was used to collect duties under it at Charleston. The president sent troops to the spot immediately, and proclaimed his resolve to execute the laws. Henry Clay's "Compromise Bill" being carried, was the occasion for the pacification of South Carolina. Clay, on this measure being objected to by his friends, as a bar to his ever winning the presidency, said: "I would rather be right than president."

42.—UNITED STATES BANK. Jackson refused to renew the charter of the Bank, and on that basis was re-elected, so that he assumed to have tested the will of the people upon that question, and thereupon the public money was drawn from that institution. Much suffering ensued, as the Bank called in its loans and a collapse immediately resulted, but during the crisis Jackson was strongly upheld by the democratic majority

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in the House, and when the local banks were aided by the funds being lodged with them, accommodation became more easy than ever before. Speculation grew rife, building lots for imaginary cities rose to a value unprecedented in our history until then, and the iridescent bubble attracted all eyes for some years.

43. — BLACK HAWK WAR. Black Hawk was in his policy the successor of Tecumseh, with this difference that he was under treaty obligations to the United States. The Sac and Fox Indians sold their lands to government and their reserved rights were respected, but Black Hawk, mistaking consideration for weakness, organized a plot in 1832 to recover the territory. The war was vigorously prosecuted, the Indians defeated, Black Hawk was deposed from his authority, and still more territory was purchased for settlement.

44. — SEMINOLE WAR. The Indians in Florida were peculiarly intractable and fierce, and before settlement could be attempted on a large scale, their absence was necessary. Under a treaty made with the chief after the purchase from Spain, the tribe was to be removed to lands west of the Mississippi, but at the last moment Osceola defied the United States. The chief was taken prisoner and then consented to carry out the treaty, but as soon as he was free he organized a general massacre, and succeeded in slaughtering some hundreds. After much fighting the Seminoles retreated to the Everglades of Southern Florida, but were defeated in the tangled swamps, by Col. Zachary Taylor in the battle of Okechobee, December 25, 1837. Osceola, seized under a flag of truce, died in Fort Moultrie in 1838, but the war did not come to an end finally until 1842.

45. — DAMAGING U. S. COMMERCE. The injuries inflicted upon our ships and property during the Napoleonic wars by France were to have been paid for to the extent of \$5,000,000, but the Bourbon government broke the agreement. The President proposed a system of reprisals, but England acting as mediator

prevented hostilities, and the debt was paid. The vigor of such action pleased the people, and Martin Van Buren, a democrat, was elected to follow Jackson, thus indorsing his policy. Gen. Harrison, personally popular, was defeated.

Van Buren and the Republic. 1837-1841.

46. — RESULTS OF INFLATION. Consequent upon the action of Gen. Jackson, the local banks had promoted speculation, and just when Martin Van Buren became President there was a great crisis. The demand for payments in gold and silver for public lands was the immediate cause, but such an event must have come. The banks contracted their circulation, business men failed for enormous sums, properties fell to a tithe of assumed values, the general government could not meet its obligations for a time, and eight states failed. There was a complete panic, and trade was almost entirely at an end.

47. — THE PAPINEAU REBELLION. The Canadian government was very unpopular in 1837-8, and the people rose in rebellion against England. Volunteers would have marched to aid the "Patriots," but the President forbade any such action on the part of United States citizens, and Gen. Winfield Scott was stationed on the frontier to secure neutrality. There was some fighting on Navy Island, but not of such a character as to involve the two nations in war. There was a probability of war on the northeast boundary question, as the limits of New Brunswick and Maine had never been definitely settled, and the people were ready to take up arms, but the difficulty was averted, and eventually the ability of Daniel Webster, displayed in the Ashburton Treaty, during Tyler's administration, set all doubts at rest. The crisis in financial affairs weakened confidence in the party which had helped to bring it about, and when Van Buren was nominated for reelection he was defeated by Gen. Harrison supported by the Whig party.

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Harrison and Tyler and the Republic. 1841-1845.

48. — GEN. HARRISON'S DEATH occurred thirty-one days after his inauguration; he was 68 years old, and the contest had been one of the most arduous ever, at that time, fought for the presidency. Vice President Tyler was his successor, and he failed to indorse the measures of the party by which he had been chosen. The "Log Cabin" President's death was esteemed a great loss to the country. The bill establishing a United States bank was vetoed by President Tyler. The unpopular President never regained the confidence of his party, but eventually died in Richmond, Va., a member of the Confederate Congress.

49. — DOMESTIC DIFFICULTIES. The Dorr Rebellion was the result of partisan strife in Rhode Island, and two sets of state officers were elected. Gov. Dorr made an attack on the State Arsenal, but was defeated, arrested, and after trial, sentenced in 1842, to imprisonment for life. He was pardoned in 1845, and in the meantime the demands of the party once led by him had been conceded. The old "Patroon" rights in New York state had long been a source of disquietude, but in 1844 the difficulty came to open war. The anti-rent party lynched those who paid rent to the "Patroons," and some officers were killed while serving processes. Military force suppressed the disturbance, and eventually the "Patroons" abandoned their light and almost forced demands for rent.

50. — THE NAUVOO WAR. The Mormons settled in Nauvoo, Ill., in 1840, and built a city. They were followers of Joe Smith, who pretended to have found gold plates containing a Revelation from God; but nobody ever saw the plates. The practices of the Mormons excited enmity among the people surrounding them, and in 1845, Smith, who had entrusted himself to the civil authorities for defense, was taken out of their hands by a mob and murdered. The city was bombarded for three days, until the Mormons

abandoned the position and fled, first to Iowa, next to Nebraska, and finally to Salt Lake.

51.—ANNEXATIONS AND SETTLEMENTS. Gen. Sam. Houston, who was elected President of the Texas Republic in 1836, applied for the admission of Texas to the Union in 1844, and after much debate in Congress and before the people, the state was admitted in the winter of 1844-5. The admission of the new state was favored by the Democrats, who nominated Polk as President, and opposed by the Whigs, who put forward Clay; the result was the reception of Texas and the election of President James K. Polk. The northwest boundary of the United States came into question in this term of office, but was not settled until the next, when 49° was agreed upon as a compromise of the claim of 54° 40'.

Polk and the Republic. 1845-1849.

52.—GEN. TAYLOR'S CAMPAIGN. The disputed territory on the Rio Grande was to be held by Gen. Taylor and his army, and he built Fort Brown as his base of supplies. The first fight occurred at Palo Alto, where an army of 6,000 Mexicans, under Arista, drew up across the road and disputed the passage of the Americans. Gen. Taylor's army consisted of 2,000 men, but the attack was made instantaneously, and the enemy routed with great slaughter. Our force lost only nine men. The day following, at Resaca de la Palma, the Mexicans were found in a deep ravine, blocking the road, and with their artillery in position to inflict considerable damage. The post was flanked by thickets, and generally had been well chosen. The guns were the main difficulty, but they were captured by Capt. May and his cavalry, and Gen. La Vega was made a prisoner at the same time. The infantry completed the triumph, and the enemy crossed the Rio Grande in great disorder.

53.—CAPTURE OF MONTEREY. Gen. Taylor carried this city and fortress by assault September 24, 1846, with about 6,000 troops, the position being very

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MENTS. Gen. Taylor, president of the convention, admitted the admission of the much debate. The committee was admitted to the admission of the committee, who nominated the Whigs, the reception committee, James K. Polk. The United States came to the conclusion that it was not settled upon as a

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the disputed territory was claimed by Gen. Taylor as his base at Palo Alto, where Arista, drew the passage of the river, consisted of 2,000 men, and the force lost at Resaca de la Pampa, a deep ravine, where the army in position was flanked and chosen. The men were captured. Gen. La Vega was the infantry commander, crossed the Rio

Gen. Taylor carried the army on September 24, the situation being very

strong but poorly defended by the garrison of 10,000 men. The streets were barricaded, and the dwellings on either side filled with troops, who poured a deadly fire on the assailants, but that difficulty was met by capturing the houses and opening a passage through the walls from one to the other. Some traveled along the roofs of the captured dwellings, and the city surrendered, the garrison being allowed the honors of war.

54. — VICTORY AT BUENA VISTA. Gen. Santa Anna wished to crush this army while a large detachment was away serving with Gen. Scott before Mexico, but he could not make his arrangements until February 23, 1847. The mountain pass at Buena Vista was held by our forces, and they were attacked by Santa Anna in person with 20,000 picked men. The battle lasted all the day long, commencing at sunrise, and our infantry was overwhelmed by superior numbers, but the artillery rendered such effectual service under Gen. Bragg, that the Mexican force was compelled to retire during the night, and Gen. Taylor had accomplished the work assigned to him. The justice of the war was hotly contested by Abraham Lincoln and others in Congress, but the execution was admitted to be admirable.

55. — Gen. Kearney's army was under orders to conquer New Mexico and California, and his force started from Fort Leavenworth, in Kansas Territory, June, 1846, to make the journey to Santa Fe. Col. Doniphan headed the men on this march, and after two well fought battles, with 1,000 men under his orders, conquered the province and city of Chihuahua. From that point the march was continued towards California, but before his arrival the work had been all but accomplished. Capt. Fremont, with a small force, was in the California country the preceding winter, when he learned that the Spaniards were about to expel American settlers, and he temporarily abandoned his work as an explorer and surveyor to rescue his countrymen from injustice. His conduct in this campaign added

California to the United States. The Mexican forces, largely superior in numbers, were routed in every conflict, and by the aid of Gen. Kearney, who arrived in time to take part in the last battle, the conquest was completed. When Fremont first intervened he was not aware that war had been declared, but he was aided materially in his operations by Commodores Stockton and Sloat.

56. — Gen. Scott's campaign commenced at Vera Cruz, where he landed with 12,000 men on the 29th of March, 1847. The Mexicans did not oppose his landing, and after a bombardment which lasted four days, the city and castle of San Juan de Ulloa were surrendered to our arms.

57. — CERRO GORDO. Early in April the army began its march to the capital, but the mountain pass of Cerro Gordo was strongly fortified by the enemy. The General conveyed his cannon by means of tackle up the face of the precipice into positions which commanded the enemy's lines, and an attack in front was commenced simultaneously with the cannonade, on the 18th of April. The effect was almost instantaneous, and Santa Anna very narrowly escaped capture at that point, 3,000 prisoners were taken, 5,000 stand of arms and 43 pieces of artillery. The moral effect of the victory was still greater than the material advantage, as other positions with large supplies of ammunition and guns were abandoned, Puebla and Perote were occupied without resistance, and at the latter town 54 cannon were captured.

58. — FALL OF MEXICO. General Scott, having been reinforced, resumed his march with 11,000 men on the 7th of August, arriving on the crest of the Cordilleras on the 10th. From that point the capital could be seen, but there was a force of 30,000 men to dispute the approach, and numerous strong fortifications. The least defended route was pursued, and Contreras, an entrenched camp, fourteen miles south of the city, was reached on the morning of the 19th.

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The force under Gen. Valencia was defeated and the camp taken by assault. The operations of the army covered much ground during that day and the next, but on the evening of the 20th, the fugitives from many points had been pursued to within one mile and a half of the capital. Churubusco and San Antonio had been carried, 3,000 prisoners had been taken 4,000 men had been killed or wounded, the army was dispersed, 37 pieces of ordnance had been won, and there was nothing before the city but surrender. An armistice for negotiation was being improved by the Mexicans in strengthening their works, and in consequence, General Scott commanded an assault on the 8th of September. The outworks were carried in succession day after day until the Castle of Chapultepec, which commanded the city, was stormed on the 13th, and early on the following day, the army marched into the city, which the Spaniards had held since the fall of the Montezumas. The war was ended, although the treaty was not signed until the beginning of February, 1848, under which the vast territory reaching west to the Pacific Ocean and south to the Gila became part of the United States.

59. — THE WILMOT PROVISIO was introduced to Congress in 1846, by David Wilmot, of Pennsylvania, seeking to prohibit slavery in any territory that might be acquired during the war. The proposition provoked much debate in the country at large as well as in the House and Senate.

60. — GOLD IN CALIFORNIA. Gold was found in Sacramento Valley in February, 1848, immediately after the territory came into our possession, and within a few months emigration had commenced from all parts of the world. Since the Crusades, there had never been such an exodus, and San Francisco was speedily changed from a half sleeping Spanish seaport to the busiest hive in the world. The city did not immediately become beautiful as it now is, but the gainful industries commenced in those early days have

since made California the world's wonder. The gold itself may not have been a benefit to the state, as it has cost more in the procurement than the metal realizes on sale, but the possession of such a population as that gathered in California makes amends for any such trivial drawback. Streets, banks, churches, halls, and gambling houses, provided for all that was good and evil in the people, who were crowded together in the pursuit of gold, and when vice and crime outstripped organization, the work of repression and punishment was taken up by the orderly citizens, so that lawlessness found a curb in the genius of the community for self government. The annexation of California proved to be one of the greatest events in the history of the world during the decade in which it happened.

61. — SELECTING A SUCCESSOR showed that there were three parties in the community ruled over by Martin Van Buren. The Free Soilers renominated the President; the Democrats named Lewis Cass, as their choice, and the Whigs gave their suffrages to Gen. Zachary Taylor, whose services in Mexico made him a popular idol, and whose sterling qualities well deserved support. The Free Soilers were opposed to the extension of slavery, and most of the party were abolitionists, but their day was not yet. Gen. Taylor was elected.

Taylor and Fillmore and the Republic. 1849-1853.

62. — PRESIDENT TAYLOR died July 9, 1850, but his career in office fully justified the expectations of his friends. Upon his decease, Millard Fillmore became President, and his services were in every sense satisfactory to his supporters.

63. — CLAY'S OMNIBUS BILL was the great question of this era, and it arose upon the application of California to be admitted to the Union as a free state. The two parties, pro-slavery and abolition, not yet distinctly organized as such, were on the watch continually, and the least observant could not fail to per-

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ceive that before many years there must be a crisis on that issue. Henry Clay strove for a peaceful solution of the difficulty and his compromise measure of 1850 was temporarily accepted. It provided for the inclusion of California as a Free State, and the formation of two Territories, Utah and New Mexico, without any legislative intervention as to slavery. Texas was to be paid \$10,000,000 to surrender its claims on New Mexico, the slave trade was prohibited in the District of Columbia and the Fugitive Slave Law was enacted. From our point of view there was much evil in such a measure, but the growth of public opinion warranted no more at that time. Daniel Webster was eloquent and impressive on this occasion, and both orators died within two years of the passage of that measure.

64.—FILLIBUSTERING EXPLOIT. Cuba, whose condition has long seemed as though a live man struggled in the rigid embrace of death, provoked in this term a fillibustering attempt at annexation, but the expedition, in which six hundred men were active participants, ended in total defeat and the leader was executed.

65.—FRANKLIN PIERCE was nominated by the Democrats as the next President after Fillmore, and the President, against whom no one had anything to aver, was not renominated. Gen. Scott was put forward by the Whigs, and both parties bade for the support of the pro-slavery Democrats, by upholding Clay's compromise against which the more logical Free Soil party inveighed bitterly. The Democrats elected Franklin Pierce. The expedition to Japan enhanced the value of Fillmore's term of office, and assisted the spread of civilization and commerce in that country.

Pierce and the Republic. 1853-1857.

66.—STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS was the most prominent figure in American history after the great leaders passed away, and his measure as to "Squatter Sovereignty" in Kansas and Nebraska, in 1853-4, was the

next compromise on the slavery question. The Missouri Compromise had been abandoned practically, before this time, as the pro-slavery men saw that the rapid growth of free states must work the ruin of their policy, unless their system was allowed indefinite expansion. The debate on the measure now to be carried provoked strong feeling and the violence of the supporters of the slavery policy was terribly illustrated in an assault, murderous in its character, upon Charles Sumner by Preston S. Brooks.

67. — WAR IN KANSAS. The Territory of Kansas was to determine for or against slavery, by voting on the question under the "Squatter Sovereignty" clause of the settlement, and the consequence, as might have been anticipated, was war to the knife. President Pierce appointed governors who favored the policy under which he was elected, but every man sent by him to fill that office became at last an advocate of the cause of the Free State party in Kansas, so violent and unjustifiable were the proceedings of the other side in the Territory. Armed emigrants, sent from the Northern states, eventually took the control of matters out of the hands of the "Border Ruffians" from Missouri and other states in the slave interest, so that on the election of President Lincoln Kansas was admitted to the Union as a Free State.

68. — FOREIGN POLICY. "The Gadsden Purchase" secured to the United States a large area of country from Mexico at a cost of \$10,000,000. This necessity arose in consequence of a dispute as to boundaries consequent on the use of foreign and erroneous maps in the former treaty, and the outlay named was better policy than armed intervention with a state so completely humbled as Mexico. The expedition to Japan, under Commodore Perry, dispatched by the action of the foregoing administration, resulted in a commercial treaty of much value to the United States, which was ratified in 1854, and this movement was much applauded.

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69. — Slavery Tactics, and the movements rendered necessary thereby, more especially when the action of the proslavery party in Kansas became known, caused great excitement in every state during the Presidential campaign. Stephen A. Douglas expected the nomination from the Democratic party, but finding that it would cause a division, he withdrew his name, and James Buchanan was elected on that platform. The Republicans, who had already superseded the Whigs as a party, went for Col. Fremont, who was largely supported, and the American Party nominated Millard Fillmore.

Buchanan and the Republic. 1857-1861.

70. — THE DRED SCOTT CASE. The Fugitive Slave Law, added to the Kansas difficulty, had brought affairs to a very heated condition on the slavery issue, when the Dred Scott case arose, upon which Chief Justice Taney decided in the Supreme Court of the United States that slave owners might carry their human chattels into any state in the Union without invalidating their rights in such property. With such an interpretation of the law staring them in the face, the public concluded that slavery must be dealt with by distinct enactments, and as vigorous administration, without delay. "Personal liberty" bills were passed in some northern states, decreeing trial by jury for slaves arrested within their boundaries, and disturbances were common whenever slaves were arrested in the states indicated. The case of Scott and his wife called for much sympathy.

71. — John Brown, at Harper's Ferry, commanded still greater feeling. The old man had suffered terribly in Kansas, at the hands of the "Border Ruffians," one of his sons being murdered, and another driven insane, and after rendering all the aid in his power to make Kansas a free state, he turned his attention to the general spread of abolition. He was a religious enthusiast of the highest type, descended from one of the Pilgrim families in the Mayflower, and he set no

value upon his life, compared with the principle upon which he had concentrated his love. With two sons who had been with him in Kansas, and some friends, about twenty in all, he surprised and captured the arsenal and armory at Harper's Ferry, proclaiming freedom to all slaves, on the 16th of October, 1859. The Virginia militia captured him and his friends on the 17th, before any assistance could reach him, and he, with all his party, suffered the penalties of the law. Captain John Brown, whose name will live in history, was hanged in Charleston, December 2, 1859. The man moved before public opinion was ripe.

72.—Slavery or Secession was the issue broadly announced by the southern states during the fall campaign, in the year 1860, and but for division in the democratic ranks, the party might have elected Stephen A. Douglas. That leader had, however, become unpopular with the extreme section of his party, because he would not concede all their demands, and they, divided in their nomination, one section sustaining Douglas and squatter sovereignty, the other presenting John C. Breckenridge, with all the consequences of the Dred Scott decision. Breckenridge did not come near being elected, but his nomination destroyed the chance of Mr. Douglas, who procured on the popular vote 1,365,976, against Lincoln's 1,857,610, while Breckenridge carried 847,953. John Bell, of Tennessee, received 590,631 votes. Abraham Lincoln, who was at that time content to let slavery stand unmolested, but would not allow it to be carried into new territory, was elected.

73.—STATE RIGHTS. The Southern States now made ready for secession, as they averred that the government was falling into the hands of their enemies. They held with Calhoun the doctrine of State Rights which involved full liberty to leave the Union at any time. The beginning, long prepared for, was made in December, 1860, when South Carolina passed an ordinance of secession, being followed by Alabama,

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Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi and Texas.
"The Confederate States of America" organized at
Montgomery, Alabama, in Februar, 1861, by electing
officers. Jefferson Davis became President of the
seceding states, and Alex. H. Stephens, Vice President.
Prest. Buchanan did nothing to avert the calamity of
civil war now imminent, although Gen. Scott was urgent
for action on the instant. United States arms, build-
ings and properties were seized as of right, and many
supposed that the union would be broken without a
struggle.

74.—MAJOR ANDERSON, who commanded the
United States forces in South Carolina, moved from
Fort Moultrie to Fort Sumter because the latter bet-
ter admitted of defense, and he anticipated the recep-
tion of orders, but none came. The steamer which
was to have given him reinforcements and supplies
had been driven back by confederate forces from Fort
Moultrie. Buchanan was apparently too much afraid
of the confederates to relieve the threatened fort, un-
less by their permission, and they said that any de-
cisive act in that direction would commence the war.
Under such circumstances, and in imminent peril of
assassination, the new President went to his inaugura-
tion.

From Independence to Secession. 1776-1861.

75.—THE STRUGGLE to maintain the integrity of
the Union being on the threshold, we may as well
consider what were the forces to be encountered.
When the famous declaration was signed and sub-
stantiated, there were thirteen states in the Union, and
since that time twenty-one had been constituted and
admitted.

76.—VERMONT, or Green Mountain, came four-
teenth on the roll, March 4, 1791. First explored by
Champlain in 1609, it was not settled until 1724.
There were disputes as to territorial rights before 1776,
and some blood had been shed in the quarrel between
New Hampshire and New York, but in 1777, the in-

habitants claimed to be an independent state. New York relinquished her claims for \$30,000 in 1791, and Vermont was the first state to come in under the constitution.

77.—KENTUCKY, the arena of Daniel Boone's exploits, came next in order, being admitted June 1, 1792. The battles with the Indians on this territory, gave to the region the title of "The dark and bloody ground." Boonesborough was the first settlement here, but Virginia then engrossed the whole of this section of country until 1790. There were many attempts to set up an independent organization, but without substantial results until 1790, when, under the Constitution, Kentucky was made a territory. When admitted as a state, there were about 75,000 inhabitants in Kentucky.

78.—TENNESSEE, named from "The River with the Great bend," was the sixteenth state. The first permanent settlement south of Pennsylvania and west of the Alleghanies was made at Fort London, near the site of Knoxville, Tenn., in 1756. The next, within this area, was made in 1780, where now Nashville flourishes. North Carolina surrendered her claim to the territory in 1789, and after being joined to Kentucky for a time, Tennessee was admitted to the Union June 1, 1796.

79.—OHIO, so called from "The Beautiful River," came in as the seventeenth, the first in the Great Northwest, Nov. 29, 1802. Baron La Salle was the first European explorer, and the first settlement was made at Marietta in 1788.

80.—LOUISIANA, the eighteenth state, named after the French King, was admitted April 8, 1812. Father Marquette led the way to the Mississippi, under information procured from the Indians, and Baron La Salle continued the exploration, giving the name of Louisiana to a large area of country, but no permanent settlement was made until 1699, at Biloxi, near the mouth of the river, and, in 1712, New Orleans was

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founded. The territory passed into the hands of Spain in 1762, but Napoleon procured the title from the Spaniards in 1800, and sold the area to us for \$15,000,000, in 1803. When Louisiana was admitted as a state, the remainder of that country was known as the Territory of Missouri. This state seceded.

81.—INDIANA came in on the 11th of December, 1816, having been constituted a territory within its present limits in 1809. Indian difficulties retarded its growth, but its progress became rapid after 1810. This, the second state in the Northwest, is the nineteenth in the Union.

82.—MISSISSIPPI, named from the greatest river known to commerce, the twentieth state in the Union, was admitted December 10, 1817. De Soto was the first explorer. Settlements, established by the French in 1700 and 1703, were destroyed by the Indians in 1728, and there were fierce wars with the tribes in consequence. The Mississippi Territory was constituted in 1798, and the Alabama Territory was cut off in March, 1817. Mississippi seceded.

83.—ILLINOIS, named from the "River of Men," was in the territory first visited by Marquette, followed by La Salle; but the territory so named was much larger than the state which was admitted December 3, 1818—the third in the Northwest, twenty-first in the Union. The Indians were very pertinacious in their hostility to the first settlers, but the Black Hawk war ended such difficulties. Chicago is the metropolis of the Northwest, and its growth seems almost miraculous.

84.—ALABAMA came in December 14, 1819, numbering itself the twenty-second state. The Creek Indians, of whom Gen. Jackson disposed, were great enemies of the early settlers. The name "Here we rest" must have seemed a mockery to the pioneers. The first settlement dates from 1702, at Bienville Fort, and Mobile, on the bay of that name, was founded in 1711, being for many years the capital of the French

possessions in Louisiana. Gen. Wilkinson took possession of this area in 1813, but terms of purchase were concluded with Spain six years later. This state was strong for secession in 1860, and later.

85.—MAINE was originally associated with Massachusetts and New Hampshire, being part of the grant to Gorges and Mason from the Council of New England at Plymouth. Maine subsequently remained in Gorges family's possession until his grandson, in 1677, sold his rights to Massachusetts for \$6,750. That state relinquished its claims in 1820, when the state came in, the twenty-third in the Union.

86.—MISSOURI, deriving its name from "Muddy Water," was admitted, August 10, 1821, the twenty-fourth in the Union. St. Genevieve, the earliest settlement in the territory, dates from 1755, but our interest in the soil dates only from the purchase in 1803. The Territory of Missouri dates from the admission of Louisiana to the Union in 1812, but the dimensions of Missouri were fixed by the Missouri Compromise, in 1821, under which the state was admitted. There were additions made to the state subsequently. Missouri was in sympathy with the Southern Confederacy, but the state did not secede.

87.—ARKANSAS, named from an Indian tribe, entered the Union, June 15, 1836, being discovered in 1635, and settled by the French, in 1670, near St. Francis River. This, the twenty-fifth state in the Union, seceded March 4, 1861, but, before the close of 1863, the government of the country was in the hands of United States troops, and it continued to be under a military government until 1868, when Congress re-admitted the state into the Union.

88.—MICHIGAN dates as a state from January 26, 1837. Fur traders and Jesuit missionaries were the first white visitors to this region, and Detroit was founded from Canada in 1701. Organized as a territory in 1805; the boundaries of the state were fixed at the time of admission, and Michigan is the twenty-sixth state.

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89. — FLORIDA, one of the seceders, was organized as a territory in March, 1819, when the purchase from Spain had been consummated, and was admitted March 3, 1845. This was the twenty-seventh state. Its early history has been given in connection with the Seminole war.

90. — TEXAS was first explored by Ponce De Leon, afterwards by La Salle, who founded settlements at Matagorda Bay, and built a French fort on the Lavaca. Spain established missions here, but failed to civilize the country or the people. So that there was no town worthy of the name in 1820, when a native of Connecticut commenced to attract emigrants to a grant procured from Mexico. Within ten years there were 20,000 Americans in Texas, and Mexico becoming jealous and oppressive, the people organized a revolution, defeated Santa Anna, became a republic under President Houston and so continued until admitted to the Union in December, 1845. Texas was one of the first to secede, and was twenty-eighth in the Union.

91. — IOWA came in December 28, 1846. The name signifying in the Indian tongue "Drowsy Ones," does not describe the people. Dubuque, a French Canadian miner, was the first to discover the value of the country near the city which bears his name, and procured a grant of land from the Indians, as well as permission to mine from the Spanish authorities in this country. He carried on lead mining until his death, transporting the lead to St. Louis, Missouri, and he was also a trader. After his death in 1810, the mines were at first worked by the Indians and then abandoned until 1832, when the mines were again worked until the miners were dispossessed by military orders pending the opening of the territory for settlement. Dubuque was founded in 1833. Iowa, the twenty-ninth state, was reduced to its present limits at the time of its admission.

92. — WISCONSIN, once part of Louisiana, then of

Illinois, then of Michigan, and afterwards of Iowa territory, was the thirtieth state, and was admitted May 29, 1848. The first exploration dates from 1639, and first settlement at Green Bay from 1745. It became a territory in 1836. The name in the Indian tongue signifies "Gathering of the Waters." The ravages of Black Hawk and his warriors were in part experienced in Wisconsin.

93. — CALIFORNIA was visited by Sir Francis Drake in pursuit of Spanish treasure ships in 1578-9, and he wintered in San Francisco Bay. The Spaniards established missions here at San Diego in 1769, and at San Francisco in 1776, but in 1835 there was only one habitation near the bay. The monks had the entire management of the country until the Mexican revolution in 1822 upset the Spanish power. The white population of the territory in 1831 was under 5,000, but after 1843, there was some emigration from this country, and the possession was eventually wrested from Mexico by Capt. Fremont and Gen. Kearney, to become one of the most prosperous states in the Union. Mexico ceded the territory to us at the close of the war. The area thus added to the United States embraced what is now known as California, Nevada, Arizona, Utah, parts of Colorado and New Mexico; in all about 450,000 square miles; with variations of soil and climate capable of producing all the vegetal treasures of the globe. Nearly all of these advantages are being improved. California came into the Union September 9, 1850, and is numbered as the thirty-first state.

94. — MINNESOTA, from the Indian "Cloudy Water," takes its name from the river. La Salle and Father Hennepin were first explorers in 1680, but Fort Snelling only dates from 1819, and St. Paul was founded in 1846, the territory being organized three years later, but rapid growth was not entered upon until the Sioux ceded a considerable area to the United States in 1851. The state was admitted May 11, 1858, numbered as the thirty-second in the Union.

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95.—OREGON, named from the Spanish for Wild
Marjoram, which is plentiful on the coast, was part of
the land purchased in 1803 from Napoleon, while Jef-
ferson was President, and Madison the Minister to
France. The Columbia River was partially explored
in 1792 by Capt. Gray in the ship *Columbia*, from
Boston, who reported in glowing terms as to the coun-
try, and the explorers Clark and Lewis, in 1804, were
sent by President Jefferson along the Missouri to the
head waters, and thence to the Pacific by the Colum-
bia River. The operations of the American Fur Com-
pany followed speedily upon the publication of their
romantic adventures in a country hardly trodden by
white men before their work commenced, and in 1839
American emigration began. The northwest boundary
settlement in 1846 aided the growth of population, and
organization as a territory followed in two years. Lib-
eral grants of land by Congress promoted colonization,
and on February 14, 1859, the thirty-third state was
admitted; Washington Territory having been organ-
ized north of the Columbia River, in 1853.

96.—KANSAS came into the union through fire
and blood, after the secession of that element which
had struggled so desperately to possess the soil and
construct thereon a slave state. Clark and Lewis were
the first white visitors in modern days, although there
is a probability that both French and Spaniards were
here in much earlier times. This also was part of the
land purchased from the Emperor Napoleon; and the
explorations by Fremont, the Mexican War, the Mor-
mon exodus, the Sante Fe trade and the gold fever in
California, led toward settlement, which was deferred
under an erroneous impression that much of the land
was a desert. Slavery had been introduced into the
territory in defiance of the Missouri Compromise be-
fore the Kansas-Nebraska bill was introduced by
Douglas, and from the beginning Missouri was resolved
upon the establishment of a slave state in Kansas.
The war that was commenced so bitterly on that area

was fought out on a wider field, to an end which none but enthusiasts of the John Brown type thought possible within our generation. Kansas organized by Act of Congress in 1854, was not admitted to the union until President Buchanan had given place to his incomparably greater successor, Abraham Lincoln, on the 29th of January, 1861, thus closing the record before the war with thirty-four states enrolled.

97. — A COMPARATIVE STUDY of the states seceding, and of those that were resolved to uphold the union, should have convinced an impartial observer on which side victory would rest, assuming a like earnestness on the question at issue, on either hand; but much, after all, depended upon careful and statesman-like management of our affairs, so that public opinion should not be shocked by violent action, which might have reacted against our success. Wealth, population, philosophy and right were on our side; but on the other were brave men, trained to statesmanship, to negotiation and to war, who had long controlled the resources of the union, with the expectation of such a time supervening, and who had arranged the forces and supplies at that moment expressly to suit their aims; unchecked, if not absolutely assisted by President Buchanan. Abraham Lincoln was called to the work of a giant, and he was equal to the task.

The Rebellion — Lincoln and the Republic. 1861-1865.

98. — LAWLESS DESIGNS were so apparent when the day approached for inaugurating the new President, that it was found necessary for Mr. Lincoln to expedite his movements and arrive in Washington before the schemes of his enemies were ready for execution. The rumor that he travelled in disguise through the disaffected state is a popular fallacy; he only passed through before he was expected and that course of action better suited every good purpose. The inauguration of the President was a solemn event in the history of the union, and the troops under Gen. Scott were no idle form in that pageant. None could

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tell in what quarter danger might even then be lurking, and there was a delusive confidence in the tone of the confederate party. Officers in both arms of the service were resigning to join their fortunes with those of the seceding states. It was believed that the union party was strong in the north, although circumstances kept them comparatively silent for a time, and the great majority still hoped that war would not become inevitable. The government must carry with it public opinion, and that is not the view of the foremost thinker, but the resultant from many minds; hence, the necessity for such cautious procedure as would keep from the skirts of the administration the stain of precipitating strife. If bloodshed must come, the responsibility should rest on the other side. That line of policy made the early days of President Lincoln's government seem hesitating and weak, when truly he was pausing in wisdom and mercy, hoping against hope that some means might be devised to save the union without a baptism of fire. There was vigor on the other side, and every sound of preparation. Arms and arsenals had been seized and appropriated, troops were on the march, recruits were coming in with enthusiasm, money and supplies were voted, and a vigorous prosecution of the war, if war it was to be, was freely promised by men who still retained their seats in congress.

99. — THE FIRST GUN in the era of strife was fired against Fort Sumter, on Friday morning April 12, 1861, and the war had commenced. The unarmed steamer, sent with supplies during the last days of President Buchanan, had been fired upon and driven back, but the friend of the confederacy saw no ground for further action, so that there were only seventy men scantily provisioned in Fort Sumter, opposed to fully seven thousand, backed by the whole force of the seceding states. There had come into the presidential office, a friend to the union, and he, after a careful survey of all the facts, concluded that the fort must be

reinforced and supplied, peacefully if possible, but at any rate the duty must be accomplished. That fact being known, the commander of the confederate troops, Gen. Beauregard, demanded the surrender of the fort, and upon Maj. Anderson's refusal there was a cannonade, which lasted thirty-four hours, the barracks were set on fire by shot and shell, the garrison was exhausted in a fruitless contest, and capitulation with the honors of war ended that fight. The garrison saluted their flag before they lowered it to the enemy, and the north was united as one man. Democrats and Republicans were now prepared for war; the Rubicon was passed. Lincoln called for 75,000 troops, his old rival and *quondam* enemy, Douglas, urged upon him to increase the requisition, and defended his course before the Democratic party; his dying words to his sons soon after were: "Obey the laws and support the constitution of the United States." Three hundred thousand volunteers answered the call for aid, the flag, lowered at Fort Sumter, was raised all over the north, evoking the spirit of '76, and the best men were ready to march to the front.

100. — THE SOUTH was inflamed by the first victory and looked forward with enthusiasm through the smoke and din of battle to a result which might justify the terrible arbitrament. Virginia joined the confederacy closely followed by Arkansas, North Carolina and Tennessee, the armory at Harper's Ferry and the navy yard at Norfolk were seized by the Virginian troops, and Richmond was made the capital, Washington was in danger, and a regiment of Massachusetts militia marching to aid in its defense, was attacked in Baltimore city, on the anniversary of the battle of Lexington, a number of men being killed. The war had commenced in earnest.

101. — THE WAR BEGINNING. Virginia was the scene of operations, because the Capital of the Union must be protected, and Col. Elmer E. Ellsworth with his zouaves occupied Alexandria, who was shot at the

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very beginning of the conflict. Arlington Heights opposite the Capital were seized by national troops on the 24th of May, 1861. Fortress Monroe at the entrance of the Chesapeake was garrisoned under Gen. Butler, and soon afterwards an expedition was sent against Big Bethel, where the confederates had fortifications. Several forces were dispatched at midnight June 9, 1861, by Gen. Butler, to make the assault on the following morning; but the different bodies mistook each other for enemies in the uncertain light and the assault failed, after causing the United States a loss of one hundred men. The confederate force, under Col. Magruder, immediately fell back to Yorktown.

102. — UNION VICTORIES were rare in the first year of the war; the troops were raw levies, enthusiastic but untrained, and there is an apprenticeship necessary for officers and men before even the bravest can look unmoved upon the probability of instant death, leaving the care of those dearest and best loved to the sympathies of strangers. Western Virginia was loyal to the union, but it was held by confederate forces, and a series of engagements at Philippi, Rich Mountain and Carrick's Ford, under the command of Gen. McClellan, won the whole state for the union. The Confederates under Wise and Floyd tried to recover the lost ground, but Rosecrans attacked the ex-War Secretary at Carnifex Ferry, Gov. Wise did not give support to Floyd, and there was another defeat for the seceders. Gen. Lee tried to sustain the failing cause, but his repulse at Cheat Mountain was not followed by any decisive gain for his side, and the union remained master in Virginia to the end of 1861.

103. — ON TO RICHMOND was the cry of the inexperienced public, and the battle of Bull Run July 21, resulted from a desire to satisfy that impatient demand. Gen. McDowell commanded the Army of the Potomac, and the opposing forces were each about 30,000. The confederates were driven from the field in the beginning

of the fight, but they were rallied by the example of Stonewall Jackson, and a reinforcement from Winchester coming up before the continuing contest could be ended, caused a panic among our men, such as happily never occurred again during the war. The north was cast down but not dismayed; the war must be a trial of strength and moral purpose among men constitutionally unused to surrender, and an effort proportioned to the purpose must be made. Congress voted five hundred thousand men and \$500,000,000 for the service, and McClellan was made Commander of the Army of the Potomac. His promotion to the command-in-chief followed shortly after.

104. — COL. BAKER, Senator from Oregon, one of the ablest and best men on the side of the union, fell at Ball's Bluff, October 21, in an action in which a reconnoitering party of 2,000 was overwhelmed by superior numbers; but a victory at Dranesville, after a spirited engagement December 20, restored the courage of the Federals, when all around looked dark.

105. — MISSOURI remained neutral in spite of attempts to carry a secession ordinance; but the troops of both parties selected this ground for many battles. Gen. Lyon, with a small federal force, broke up Camp Jackson, defeated an attempt on the Union Arsenal at St. Louis, and on the 17th of June routed a confederate force of 2,500 men in an entrenched camp at Booneville, capturing guns, clothing and camp equipage. Gen. Sigel, outnumbered by the combined forces of the confederates under Jackson and Price, after a well fought battle, was compelled to retire on Carthage and Sarcoxie on the 5th of July, and Lyon, left unsupported, chose to attack the armies of Price and McCulloch at Wilson's Creek on the 10th of August. He fell leading a bayonet charge in that unsuccessful action and Col. Mulligan was subsequently compelled to surrender Lexington. Gen. Fremont assuming the command, forced the confederates under Price to retreat to Springfield, but he was superseded by Hunter

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before a decisive battle could be fought. Gen. Halleck, who soon succeeded Hunter, continued the course commenced by Fremont, and Price retreated to Arkansas. On the 6th of November Gen. Grant, with 4,000 troops descended the Mississippi river, from Cairo, and on the following morning drove the confederates from their camp at Belmont, after a prolonged engagement, and destroyed the camp with all its contents; but strong reinforcements from Columbus under Polk, coming to the rescue of the enemy, Grant was eventually driven back to his boats, without losing a gun, and carrying with him artillery captured during the assault; thus the year ended favorably for the union in Missouri.

106.—COAST AND SEA offered a field for operations, of which Jefferson Davis proposed to avail himself by issuing commissions to privateers, and in consequence the southern ports were blockaded. The Union navy had been scattered all around the world by the Buchanan administration, and of the forty-two ships in commission, there was but one efficient vessel on the northern coast. Before the end of 1861, the navy consisted of 204 ships of war. The Savannah privateer was the first to sail under the confederate flag, and she was captured after making only one prize. The Petrel was sunk by the St. Lawrence, having mistaken a war frigate for an unarmed merchant ship, and Capt. Semmes sold the Sumter in Gibraltar Bay to prevent her falling into our hands. The forts at Hatteras Inlet, N. C., were captured by a joint attack of land and sea forces, and a similar combination carried Tybee Island, at the mouth of the Savannah, and Port Royal Entrance, S. C., which became the depot of the Union fleet.

107.—BELLIGERENT RIGHTS had been conceded by England and France to the Confederates, and the South, hoping for foreign aid, sent Commissioners Sli-dell and Mason to those courts. The British steamer Trent was boarded by Capt. Wilkes of the San Jacinto,

and the Commissioners captured; but the general government disavowed the act, and the prisoners were set at liberty. France and Louis Napoleon would have joined England in rendering aid to the Confederates, but the English government was held in check by public opinion, and it was desirable that the sympathies of the British people should be carried with us through the war.

108.—THE END OF 1861 showed a somewhat mixed result. The losses at Harper's Ferry and Norfolk were material, but they were not defeats for our arms, such as we had sustained at Bull Run and Wilson's Creek. There had been reverses also at Big Bethel, Lexington, and Ball's Bluff. Carthage, not a defeat, had compelled a retrograde movement, and the brilliant affair at Belmont was not entirely a success; still on the whole these were compensations. Our men were becoming trained to war, and that was everything in the great result. Fort Pickens, near Pensacola, had been saved to the Union by a wise concentration of force, and Fort Monroe, on Old Point Comfort, Va., was also in our hands, as also Hatteras Inlet and Port Royal. Missouri, Maryland and West Virginia had been rescued from the secessionists, and besides winning the battles of Philippi, Rich Mountain, Booneville, Carrick's Ford, Cheat Mountain, Carnifex Ferry, and Dranesville, the whole South had been thrown into a state of siege, shut in by armies on land, and by a formidable blockade upon the coast.

109.—LOOKING AHEAD. The force voted by Congress, half a million of men, had been raised to meet the Confederate force of 350,000. The disparity was not overpowering, but it gave an earnest of the inexhaustible power, back of our half million, which could be drawn upon as a reserve force to the bitter end. The campaign on our side began with three purposes, opening the Mississippi, completely closing all southern ports, and capturing Richmond, the capital of the Confederacy. Fort Henry and Fort Donelson, on the

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Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, must be captured, and impregnable Columbus opened to our troops, so that there was no child's play before our heroes. Cumberland Gap, Mill Spring, and Bowling Green were also strong positions in Confederate hands, and it was hoped that if the Tennessee River could be carried, there would be valuable results before the commencement of 1862.

110.—ON THE TENNESSEE. Gen. Grant and Com. Foote, with the army and gunboats, moved from Cairo, Feb. 2d, and on the 6th the combined attack was to be made on Fort Henry; but before the army could come up the fort surrendered, and the troops driven out by the bombardment escaped to Fort Donelson, increasing its defense by 3,000 men. The General in command and 70 men were taken with the works. Grant moved upon Fort Donelson on the 12th, having waited until the gunboats had been repaired. The force to be assailed was very strong, having been reinforced by the Confederate Generals Pillow, Buckner and Floyd, and the battle lasted three days. Fighting began on the 13th, when after a vigorous cannonading an assault was made, and repulsed. On the 14th, reinforcements to the number of 10 000 men joined Grant, and the gunboats having come up, the battle was renewed, but before the afternoon closed Com. Foote was compelled to retire with the gunboats, and the lines of investment by land were drawn closer. On the 15th the Confederate Generals tried to cut their way through Grant's force, but their aim had been divined and they were driven back with considerable loss. An advance along the whole line forced the defenders back within their works, with no alternative but surrender. Pillow and Floyd made their escape, and the surrender devolved upon Buckner. Grant was ready on the 16th for a general attack, but with early dawn came a messenger asking for an armistice and terms of capitulation. The reply was worthy of Grant: "No terms but un-

conditional surrender can be accepted. I propose to move upon your works at once." The surrender was made on those conditions, and the fort, with 10,000 prisoners, 48 guns and large quantities of ammunition, fell into our hands Feb. 16th. The consequence was as had been anticipated, that Bowling Green and Columbus were abandoned by the enemy and Buell took possession of Nashville. Corinth was the next rallying point of the Confederates, and Gens. Johnson and Beauregard concentrated their strength at that point, the railroad center of Mississippi and Tennessee. Grant in command ascended to Pittsburg Landing, and Buell was to come up with reinforcements. The Memphis and Charleston Railroad was to be secured by our forces, and the enemy saw the purpose to be important.

111.—PITTSBURG LANDING. Grant, who had won the first great success of the war, was now Major General, but subordinate to Halleck, and he was commanded not to attack Corinth. He encamped at Shiloh with 38,000 men, and waited for Buell. Five thousand of his troops were beyond supporting distance, when the Confederates, 50,000 strong, advanced from Corinth to crush Grant before he could procure reinforcements. The slaughter was terrible, and the national forces slowly retired to the river, where they were held by Grant until dark, when Buell's force began to arrive. The guns were worked all night upon the Confederate camp, and early on the following day Grant, with the combined forces, drove the enemy back to Corinth. Johnson was slain, and Beauregard returned with a loss of 11,000 men. The loss on our side had been very severe, but the ground fought over was in our hands, and although the surprise had been a severe shock, the *prestige* of victory remained with our forces. The evacuation of Corinth and its possession by Halleck on the 30th of May, was a consequence of the desperate struggle on the 6th and 7th of April, as no fighting had since that time occurred.

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112. — RESULTS OF SHILOH. When the confederates abandoned Columbus, they occupied Island No. 10, in the Mississippi, where they were bombarded for three weeks by Com. Foote; but the surrender of the force, 7,000 strong, on the day of the victory at Shiloh, was compelled by the action of Gen. Pope. The troops of the south had been concentrated at Corinth, and New Orleans was left almost unprotected. The Confederate iron clad fleet was defeated on the river by the Union gunboats, May 10th. Fort Pillow fell immediately after Corinth, the Memphis and Charleston Railroad was secured, Memphis was taken, and the Confederate flotilla in front of Memphis destroyed by our gunboats; and indeed Kentucky and all western Tennessee were in our possession. From Memphis almost to Chattanooga our line was unbroken, and Buell was on the advance to the point last named. Bragg, Price and Van Dorn, the Confederate Generals at Chattanooga, Iuka and Holly Springs, were under an imperative necessity to break our line or retreat. They chose the former alternative.

113. — BATTLE AT PERRYVILLE. Gen. Bragg advanced with 50,000 men, and Buell retired to Nashville, where, having ascertained that his opponent meant to reach Louisville, he made a forced march of three hundred miles to cut off Gen. Bragg, beating him by just one day. Buell being reinforced had now 100,000 men under his command. Grant had sent every veteran that could be spared, and Bragg slowly retreated to Perryville, where a desperate fight occurred on the 8th of October. Bragg drew off during the night succeeding the battle, carrying a vast quantity of plunder which had been gathered on his march, and Gen. Buell was superseded by Rosecrans on the last day of October. The retreat from Kentucky was now inevitable.

114. — IUKA AND CORINTH. While Grant was weakened by the absence of the men sent to assist Buell, Price and Van Dorn meditated the recap-

ture of Corinth. Grant had also a design, and he moved upon Iuka Sept. 19, hoping to capture Price; but Rosecrans did not carry out his instructions, and Price escaped; and to that extent the victory was incomplete; but the Confederates lost nearly 1,500 men. The Confederate Generals then carried out their scheme and made a combined assault on Corinth with 40,000 men. Grant strengthened the fortifications and directed the defense which resulted in another Confederate defeat on the 3d and 4th of October, followed up by the battle of the Hatchie on the 5th, the losses of the enemy being more than 6,000 men.

115. — ROSECRANS AT MURFREESBORO. Before abandoning Kentucky, Bragg determined upon a final effort, and advanced with 60,000 men to Murfreesboro, where he was met by Rosecrans Dec. 31. The Confederate right, strengthened for the purpose, attacked the Union right, which had been weakened to carry out a similar project of assaults by Rosecrans; and the assault would have been fatal but for the courage of Gen. Sheridan, who held his men together until Rosecrans could reform his order of battle. The Confederates advanced four times after the first assault, but were defeated with great slaughter. On the 2d of January, 1863, Bragg renewed the battle, but after one of the most sanguinary contests of the war, one-fourth of the united forces being destroyed in the two days fighting, he was compelled to retreat and to stand only upon the defensive. Kentucky was beyond recovery, and the way was open for further advances on Chattanooga.

116. — MOVING AGAINST VICKSBURG. Maj. Gen. Grant moved into Mississippi on the 2d of November, to threaten Vicksburg in the rear with 30,000 men, while Sherman attacked the place by the river with 40,000, descending from Memphis. Grant had reached Oxford, fifty miles in advance, when Col. Murphy surrendered Holly Springs to Gen. Van Dorn's cavalry. Murphy was dismissed from the army for his incompetency, or worse; but the campaign had to be

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abandoned. Sherman, unaware of this change, made his attack at Chickasaw Bayou, but was defeated with great loss. Arkansas Post was captured by Sherman on the 11th of January, 1863, and the campaign of 1862, on the Mississippi, was closed by that act. Missouri was still the scene of operations, but Gen. Curtis drove Gen. Price into Arkansas in February, 1863, and when Van Dorn, with a command of 20,000, attempted to recover the lost ground, he was totally defeated at Pea Ridge, March 7-8, and no further important battles were fought in Missouri.

117. — FARRAGUT AT NEW ORLEANS. The southern armies being concentrated at Corinth, left New Orleans an easy prey to our arms; but the defenses on the sea front were tremendous. As soon as the capture was resolved upon, Commodore Farragut was nominated to the command. His preparations and his orders for the attack were worthy of the success that was achieved; he left nothing to accident, and no mishap marred his victory. His fleet of forty-four vessels carried 8,000 men under Gen. Butler. The defenses at the mouth of the river were bombarded for some days, but at length it was concluded to run in past the forts and come to close quarters with the city. The daring movement was eminently successful. Shot, shell, and fire rafts, failed to destroy the Union fleet, and the Confederate force of thirteen armed steamers, the steam battery Louisiana, the Ram Manassas, and the forts at short range, were all in turn vanquished, and twelve of the flotilla destroyed. The city was then defenseless under our guns, and the forts, menaced from the rear, surrendered. Thus New Orleans was reached and conquered through an array of defenses which, to that day, had been deemed invincible. The Commodore proceeded up the river in the summer of 1862, ran the Vicksburg batteries, passing through the awful fire of the forts at Port Hudson, and joined Flag Officer Porter in command of the fleet on the Upper Mississippi, assisting in the capture of

Port Hudson, as he had already taken Baton Rouge and Natchez. He well deserved the thanks and promotion bestowed upon him by Congress. Porter was also made a Rear Admiral.

118. — CAPTURE OF ROANOKE. Gen. Burnside rendered an important service to the Union cause in the capture of Roanoke, the key to the defenses of Norfolk, as it made the blockade of the South more than ever effective. This island was well said to unlock "two sounds, eight rivers and four railroads." The forts at Roanoke were captured, the fleet annihilated, Newbern, Elizabeth City, and Macon were taken so that Beaufort Harbor became ours, and the whole coast of North Carolina.

119. — PORT ROYAL having been captured in 1861, was now a base of operations against Florida and Georgia, and during this campaign, Fernandina, Fort Clinch, Jacksonville, Darien, St. Augustine, and Fort Pulaski were taken in succession. The last named capture closed the Port of Savannah; and every city on the Atlantic coast except Mobile, Charleston and Savannah was held by our troops.

120. — MERRIMAC AND MONITOR. The iron clad Merrimac, really named "Virginia," steamed into Hampton Roads March 8, at noon, steering directly for the Cumberland sloop of war, in whose side she made a hole large enough to admit a man. The sloop sank at once with all on board, the men working their guns as they went down, with colors flying. The Congress frigate was run aground to save her from the same fate, but she was compelled to surrender to this irresistible power. There was no longer a place on the coast where wooden vessels could be safe against such an enemy, and the Merrimac, sure of victory, reserved the feast of destruction until next day. The Confederates were full of joyous auguries. No blockade was possible while the Merrimac kept afloat. Just then the Monitor, built by Ericsson, arrived in Chesapeake Bay, with the revolving turret, armed for attack, and

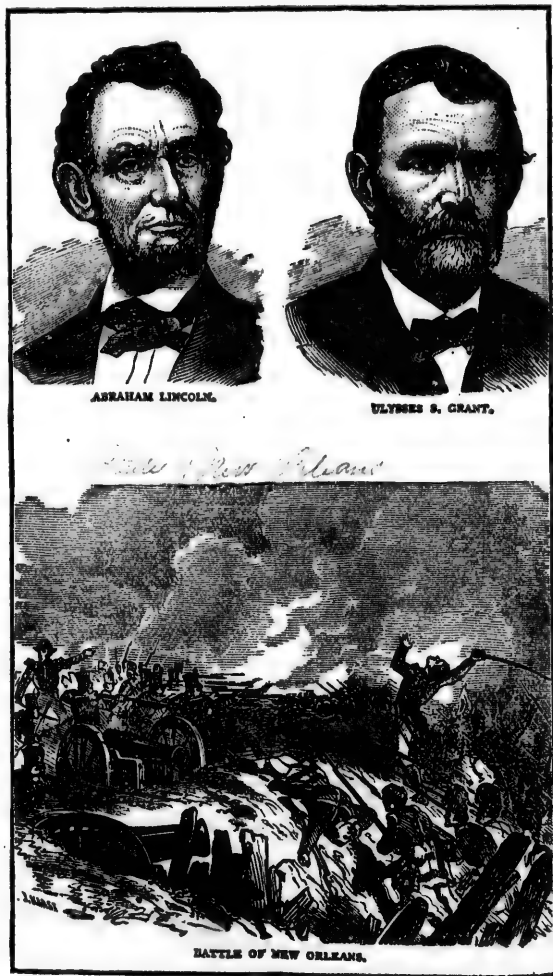
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a form almost invulnerable. The occasion was critical. Should she answer the expectation of her friends the Confederacy might be broken; but otherwise, who could foresee the result? Her tonnage was a bagatelle against that of the Virginia. Nine hundred tons, compared with five thousand. Ready for service in Hampton Roads, she waited the arrival of the monster from whose sides and roof, the shot of the Cumberland had rolled off harmlessly as hail from a cliff. The morning brought the destroyer, and the Minnesota steam frigate was chosen as the first victim; but from under the lee of that ship came the Monitor, delivering shot one hundred and sixty-two pounds in weight; masses of iron, whose impact must be destruction. The Minnesota was spared until the little terragant could be silenced. Shot failed to affect her, she must be run down, and five times the experiment was tried, but the Monitor came from under the Virginia's prow untouched. The world had never witnessed a duel so strange, but the victory was with the Union; as the Virginia gave up the contest, and steamed back into Norfolk, leaving the Monitor substantially unharmed. Ericsson's ship of iron and white oak was worth the ransom of four million slaves. Perhaps the Monitor even saved the Republic.

121. — YORKTOWN BESIEGED. Gen. McClellan, landing on the 8th of April at Fortress Monroe with 100,000 men, commenced the Peninsula Campaign by advancing to Yorktown, where Gen. Magruder, with 5,000 held him at bay for one month; until heavy siege guns could be procured from Washington, and when all was ready for a terrible beginning, Magruder gave up his untenable position, where many of the guns were found to be wooden substitutes, painted in mockery. It would have been an ill wind for Magruder that blew him into McClellan's hands at that time.

122. — BATTLE OF WILLIAMSBURG. Gen. Joseph E. Johnson, posted at Richmond, having sent reinforcements to the Confederate rear guard in the forts

at Williamsburg, Gen. Hooker was afforded an opportunity for a battle; as the retreating troops determined to make their stand at that point. Nine hours the battle raged, but the assaulting party being reinforced, Gen. Hooker carried the works by storm, and pursuit continued until the fugitives were within seven miles of Richmond. The city would probably have fallen an easy prey at that time.

123.—CONFEDERATE PANIC. The Congress sitting in Richmond hastily adjourned, and an attack was hourly expected in the capital, where all was hurry and confusion; but McClellan had learned that there was a force at Hanover Court House which might endanger his base of supplies, and the time passed for operations. Hanover Court House was captured May 27, 1862, and the army waited for Gen. McDowell, but the junction was rendered impossible by other movements.

124.—STONEWALL JACKSON was hurled towards Washington, not with the expectation that an opportunity for an assault upon the National Capital would arise, but for the purpose of relieving Richmond. His action in the Shenandoah valley concentrating upon himself the attention of a force of 70,000 men, yet eluding pursuit and being always on hand to deliver telling strokes against our forces, provoked admiration among those who deprecated the cause to which his abilities were dedicated. The Union troops under Gen. Banks, marching 85 miles in one day, crossed the Potomac, as a necessary movement under the circumstances. The President took military possession of all the railroads, and consternation was general in Washington. The northern states were called upon to send militia to defend the city, and three generals—Freemont, Banks and McDowell—were commanded to make Jackson their prisoner; but it was as dangerous an operation as grasping an electrical eel, and apparently impossible. He dashed through every obstacle in his retreat, burning the bridges by which he

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passed, and, when Fremont attacked him at Cross Keys, June 8, he fought from nine in the morning until night, and then continued his retreat in the darkness. At Port Jackson, on the 9th, he engaged and defeated Gen. Shields, capturing seven guns, and returned to his starting point, with nearly 3,000 prisoners and over 9,000 stand of captured arms. These exploits with 15,000 men diverted attention from Richmond, and prevented a junction between McDowell and McClellan.

125.—MCCLELLAN AT FAIR OAKS. The General had pushed his left wing across the Chickahominy, just when a storm had changed the creek into a torrent, and the Confederate commander in Richmond came down upon the semi-detached force with terrible effect, sweeping all before him for a time; but Gen. Sumner, by a brilliant movement, saved the fortune of the day, and, when night fell, the Confederate leader Johnston was severely wounded, so that the command fell into less able hands the next day. June 1 saw the Confederates driven back into Richmond with tremendous losses of men and arms, and the pursuers followed them to within five miles of that city, but, once more, Gen. McClellan did not see his way to make one of those bold strokes which are possible only to military genius.

126.—GEN. LEE now took command of the Confederate army, but, in consequence of the influence exerted by his political chief, the supreme control of military operations was not vested in him, and the forces were scattered over a wide range of territory, in services which did not permit of continuous support. He was much loved by his troops; an able defensive soldier, but not a good disciplinarian, nor a very successful general as a rule, save in defense. His knowledge of the art of war was well nigh perfect, but he seemed to lack first-class capacity to mass his troops and direct their operations in the field. Perhaps there was not another man in the Confederacy who could,

with the same means, have made a defense so brilliant as that which will perpetuate his fame in connection with the name of Richmond. He would have abandoned Richmond at a much earlier date, but that he was overruled by the Confederate government in that, as in many other particulars, and the intellectual merit of his work is enhanced by the fact that he was laboring much of his time under difficulties all but insuperable. The appointment of Lee to the Confederate command was speedily followed by a severe check to our arms under McClellan. That officer approached Richmond once more. Hooker's pickets were in sight of its steeples when Gen. Stuart, on the 12th of June, made a movement with cavalry round the Union forces, burning supplies along the roads most important for our purposes, and returned untouched. Stonewall Jackson threatened Hanover Court House and our White House communications, so Hooker was called off from the advance, and a retreat to the James River commenced on the 26th of June.

127.—CONFEDERATE AGGRESSIONS began by an attack on the Union right at Mechanicsville, at dawn of day on the 26th, which was repulsed, and our troops fell back to Gaines' Mill, where Porter held the bridges across the Chickahominy until darkness shrouded our movements, the retreat, hotly contested, going on all the time. As soon as our baggage train had crossed, the bridges were burned, and the retrograde movement continued all night. Similar operations, the localities only being changed, continued for seven days and nights. The retreat was an act of consummate generalship on the part of McClellan, but Lee had discovered his aim, and troops were thrown forward by all roads to intersect his line of march. On the 29th, at Savage's Station, Magruder was on our flank, but as before the position was held until night, when the retreat was resumed. On the 30th, Longstreet and Hill tried to cut our lines at Frazier's Farm, but were beaten off, and that night our forces concen-

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trated at Malvern, on a position favorable for defense, where the last battle of this series was fought. Batteries, tier above tier on the sloping sides of the plateau, told the Confederates on the morning of July 1st that the retreating Army of the Potomac was ready for action. Really the brave fellows were reduced to the last pitch of exhaustion by the harrassing work of the preceding days and nights, but none would have recognized that fact in the proceedings of the day. Naval support on the James River protected the left, but nothing daunted, the Confederates hoped to carry the position and completely destroy McClellan's power. The repulse sustained by Lee's army at this point was tremendous, and the Union army proceeded to Harrison's Landing without further molestation afterwards; but the effect of the Confederate movements under Lee, taken as a whole, gave great confidence to the Secessionists. Twenty thousand men lost at Malvern Hill was a small price to pay for a succession of victories up to that point, which had driven McClellan from under the works at Richmond, taken 10,000 prisoners, destroyed and secured stores of enormous value, demoralized an army of 100,000, or nearly that number, and only left them when naval forces came to the rescue. McClellan's loss in killed and wounded was terrific; the north was depressed beyond measure, and the President made a fresh levy of 300,000 men.

128.—POPE'S RECORD on the Rapidan, commanding the troops intended to defend Washington, was the next object of attention. The Confederates, no longer fighting for their own capital, now threatened ours, and McClellan was subordinated to Gen. Pope, being ordered to bring his army to Acquia Creek. Lee determined to crush Pope before relief could arrive, and having detailed Jackson to flank him, compelled that General to fight the whole force of the Confederacy under his command, on the old battle ground of Manassas, or Bull Run. The actions of August 29th and 30th cost the north a terrible discomfiture, in which

the loss of thirty guns and a vast quantity of military stores, very valuable to the south, formed the smallest items in the account. The Army of the Potomac, all but demolished by this new loss of 30,000 men, and the *prestige* of utter rout, found safety in the fortifications of Washington.

129. — MCCLELLAN RESUMED COMMAND of the army, such as it had become under Pope, and after reorganizing the force, he followed Gen. Lee into Maryland. Having ascertained that Lee had dispatched Stonewall Jackson with 25,000 men to capture Harper's Ferry, defended by Col. Mills with only 11,000, McClellan overtook the Confederate main body at South Mountain and forced the Battle of Antietam, on the 17th day of September. The battle might have been fought on the 16th, but McClellan lost twenty-four hours, and that allowed Jackson to return with part of his command before the engagement came to an end. But for that delay Lee would have been crushed, or at any rate that was the general impression in the north. At dawn on the 17th, Hooker fell upon the Confederate left, Burnside waiting a favorable moment to carry the bridge and attack the right. Hooker was wounded and his attack repulsed, but both sides being reinforced, the battle continued until night, the advantage at the close of the engagement being with Lee, who retired into Virginia shortly afterwards, and was not followed by McClellan until after a delay of six weeks. Lee had been compelled to abandon his scheme of invasion, Washington was safe, and the battle of Antietam had thus the results of a victory.

130. — EMANCIPATION OF SLAVES. President Lincoln, whose mind had long pondered the question of slavery as an abolitionist, and the policy of emancipation as a statesman, issued his famous proclamation on the 22d of September; but the actual operation of its conditional clauses only commenced when the supplementary document followed on January 1, 1863. The original draft had been made in July, but the

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ration was opportune, as it gave fresh courage to
many who had been disheartened by what had seemed
the want of purpose, in a war arising out of slavery.
The south was already so bitter, that nothing could
increase its animosity against the north, consequently
there was no reason for further delay; still it was
important with many in the north, to make it evident
that emancipation was necessary as a war measure.

131.—McCLELLAN SUPERSEDED. Public opinion
had long been wavering as to McClellan, but the
campaign of 1862 was fatal to his popularity, and
he was superseded by Gen. Burnside November 7th,
who advanced to Fredericksburg on the 17th, crossing
the Rappahannock on pontoon bridges, and found
Lee ready to make a masterly defense of his position
in the bloody conflict of December 13th. The position
to be assailed on the 13th of December could have
been taken with ease, when Gen. Sumner asked Burn-
side for orders to capture the place on the night of
November 17; but the newly appointed commander
seemed resolved that he would prove his ability to
move so large an army, of which he had already pub-
licly spoken, and he waited until the force of one
regiment of cavalry had been changed to the entire
confederate army under Lee in person. The battle
was a series of blunders on our side, in which orders,
half understood, were executed or attempted with
useless heroism, and the slaughter under the stone wall
at Marye's Hill, defended by Gen. Longstreet, was an
entirely fruitless massacre of brave men before an
impassable obstacle. Twelve thousand men fell, and
half of that number, at Marye's Hill, dying like heroes
but without result, except that Burnside's estimate of
his own powers had been fully sustained, and eight
days later he was relieved from the command.

132.—RESULTS OF THE CAMPAIGN. The vic-

tories of the south had been won almost entirely against the army of the Potomac, and it was evident, at almost every movement, that our forces were out-generated by superior men with whom they had been associated at West Point, until every minutia of their minds had been read. The victories of Stonewall Jackson and of Lee in the Peninsular campaign, and against Pope at Manassas, followed by Cedar Mountain, Chickasaw Bluff and Fredericksburg, almost ended the record; as the operations of Bragg in Kentucky had been considerably checkered by reverse. The victories of the north had still been such as to counteract all these drawbacks, and to prove that there were on our side commanders who knew how to move masses of men with deadly celerity upon points of attack, and to win victories by land and sea. Forts Henry, Donelson, Pulaski, Macon, Jackson, St. Philip and Island No. 10, taken by the Federal arms, proved the bravery of our troops and the capacity with which they were directed in the opening of the Mississippi early in the year. The same river opened to Vicksburg, the capture of New Orleans, Roanoke Island, Newbern, Yorktown, Norfolk and Memphis, the battles of Pea Ridge, Williamsburg, Fair Oaks, South Mountain, Antietam, Iuka, Corinth and Murfreesboro, the destruction of the flotilla before New Orleans, and the defeat of the Merrimac by the Monitor, made a good showing for the work of the year; but most men saw that the command of our resources in the west and along the coast had been much more conducive to glory and success than that which, under several heads, had sacrificed the north in Virginia.

133.—INDIAN DIFFICULTIES came in to increase our complications during 1862. The Sioux, unable to procure their payments from Indian traders, committed horrible massacres in Dacotah, Iowa and Minnesota, driving thousands from their home, and murdering about seven hundred whites. Col. Sibley

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pursued the savages for one month, took five hundred captives and thirty-nine were hanged at Mankato after Christmas, 1862, thereby ending the outbreak.

134.—THE CAMPAIGN OF 1863 opened with the emancipation of slaves; they were no longer merely "contrabands of war;" they were free within the boundaries of the Union; and there were 700,000 men in arms to carry out that line of policy. Already the Confederates were being destroyed by the mere continuance of the war, as their numbers in the field were hardly 350,000. The occupation of Tennessee was now added to the former plans of action.

135.—CAPTURE OF VICKSBURG. Grant, in command of all the troops in the Mississippi Valley, in January, 1863, took a position in front of Vicksburg, and determined to carry the place. Some months were spent in unceasing devices on the North, before the General concluded to pass the river below Vicksburg in April. The gunboats ran the batteries and the troops were crossed on the last day of the month. Pemberton, not yet shut up in Vicksburg, was in the field with 52,000 men, and was on the point of being reinforced by Johnston, who had preceded Lee in the command at Richmond. Grant's command was only 43,000, therefore it was important that the enemy should be taken in detail. Pushing himself between the two armies he, on the 1st of May, defeated part of Pemberton's command at Port Gibson; on the 12th he destroyed a force coming from Jackson, and on the 14th scattered Johnston's army, capturing Jackson at the same time. Two days later he routed Pemberton's entire force at Champion's Hill, and on the 17th, having overtaken him in pursuit, he inflicted upon him another defeat at Black River Bridge, driving him into Vicksburg the following day. Assaults failing to carry the city on the 19th and 22d, siege works began on the 23d, and on the 4th of July, the day we celebrate was signalized by the surrender of Vicksburg, with 31,000 men and 172 cannon, besides other

stores. The Confederate loss in that campaign was 40,000 prisoners and about 20,000 killed, wounded, missing, and deaths by disease. Thus the great river was opened to the sea, and the Mississippi Valley saw no more heavy fighting. Our loss altogether was under 9,000 men, in winning five battles and capturing two cities, besides which the fall of Port Hudson, which had resisted Gen. Banks for many weeks, followed immediately on the surrender of Vicksburg, and the Confederacy was completely severed.

136.—CHICKAMAUGA. The energy displayed by Grant was not emulated by Rosecrans in Tennessee, and it was not long before the voice of the people called the Pacificator of the Mississippi Valley to higher commands. He was forthwith made a Major General in the regular army. Rosecrans made no movement, after Murfreesboro, until June, when he marched against Bragg, with 60,000 men, and compelled that General to abandon Chattanooga, September 8th, to preserve his communications. Assuming Bragg to be in full retreat, Rosecrans followed precipitately and was nearly destroyed by the sudden movements of Bragg, near Chickamauga, when the pursuing force was scattered along a line of about forty miles. The battle lasted two days, September 19th and 20th. The first day saw no advantage gained by either side, but about noon on the 20th, Longstreet broke the Federal line and swept away the centre and right, Rosecrans being among the fugitives. Gen. Thomas, with the left, held the field against the entire Confederate army until night, when he retired to Chattanooga, taking some prisoners as he went. The army of the Union was shut up and Bragg cut off all communications threatening the garrison with famine. Thomas was afterwards known as "The Rock of Chickamauga."

137.—CHATTANOOGA was closely beleaguered when Grant's command was extended to cover that region, October 16th. One week from that date he was on

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the spot, and on the 27th, the battle of Lookout Valley relieved the Army of the Cumberland. There was no Rosecrans now to dally with danger. Hooker came from the Potomac by rail, with two corps, 25,000 men, and Sherman dashed into the scene of glory by forced marches from Iuka. November 23d, 24th and 25th saw Bragg defeated in the battle of Chattanooga, driven from positions supposed to be impregnable, losing 5,000 prisoners in the open field, and forty pieces of artillery. The Confederates reported 2,500 men, killed and wounded. Orchard Knob was seized by Gen. Thomas on the 23d, and on the 24th Lookout Mountain was carried in a grand charge by Hooker, who the next morning advanced on the south of Missionary Ridge. Sherman disturbed the equanimity of Bragg by his operations on the northern flank, and the center was weakened to resist him. Grant, at Orchard Knob, saw his opportunity and sent Thomas to carry the rifle pits at the foot of the ridge; but his men, forgetting all limitations, bettered the instruction by sweeping up the ridge with headlong impetuosity. A charge along the whole line was the crowning movement of the day. Bragg's army was annihilated, his own guns were turned upon him, there was no longer a hostile army west of the Alleghanies, and Georgia was open to our arms, with Virginia, the Carolinas, and the complete control of East Tennessee. Bragg resigned his command immediately afterwards, and Grant became the idol of the North.

138. — KNOXVILLE, TENN., was now the abiding place of Gen. Burnside, who, after his misfortunes in command of the Army of the Potomac, had achieved many successes in this region, but had been shut up in Knoxville, Sept. 17, by Longstreet, with a superior force. Immediately after Chattanooga the commander sent Sherman to relieve Burnside, by forced marches with barefoot troops, over terrible roads, a distance of one hundred miles. Longstreet made his grand assault Nov. 29, hoping to subdue Burnside before aid

could reach him, but that General knew how to fight to the last man, and the attack was heroically defeated. The relief under Sherman came on the 4th of December, and Longstreet retreated in good order.

139. — GENERAL HOOKER succeeded Burnside in command, after Fredericksburg, in January, and upon the departure of Longstreet, who was sent into Tennessee to help Bragg, Hooker determined upon an advance with about 100,000 men, to attack Lee, who had now only about 60,000 within reach. Sedgwick was left before Fredericksburg, and Hooker pushed forward to Chancellorsville, taking up a very strong position, from which Lee was unable to dislodge him. The fight continued two days, May 2d and 3d, but on the second day Hooker, having been stunned by a cannon ball, which struck a post against which he was leaning, could not direct the operations of his side. A terrible attack in the rear of the force by Stonewall Jackson, while Lee made an assault in front, partially demoralized the army; but the great body of the forces held their ground. The redoubtable Stonewall Jackson fell in this battle, being shot by mistake by one of his own men, as is believed; and the loss of such an officer was worse than the destruction of a regiment, for the Confederate cause. Sedgwick crossed the Rappahannock, carried Fredericksburg by assault, and attacked the rear of Lee's army, but that officer concentrating his force upon Sedgwick, drove him back across the river, and Hooker, having lost 18,000 men, recrossed the Rappahannock. The Confederates lost about 18,000. Sedgwick's movements were well executed, but the accident to Hooker prevented the designs originally formed from being carried into execution.

140. — PHILADELPHIA AND NEW YORK were now the objective points with Gen. Lee, and he was confident that he could dictate terms of peace in the heart of the northern states. The successes at Vicksburg and in that neighborhood were yet in the future, and

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the south made a desperate effort to equip an army superior to anything ever yet attempted by the Secessionists. Hooker, who was in command of the Federal army, when Lee moved down the valley of the Shenandoah and crossed the Potomac, advancing to Chambersburg, continued on the same line along Blue Ridge and South Mountains. Fearing some movement that would endanger his communications, Lee turned east to threaten Baltimore. Hooker continued in command until the army arrived in Frederick City, when in consequence of his demands as to the disposition of troops not being complied with, he resigned, and the command devolved upon Gen. Meade. Congress afterwards gave a vote of thanks to Gen. Hooker for his services in averting the blow which might have been inflicted upon the capital by the Confederate forces under Lee.

141. — GETTYSBURG. Gen. Meade only assumed the command of the Army of the Potomac June 28th, and the great battle commenced on the 1st of July, being continued for two days afterwards. The plans made for the campaign by Hooker were eminently judicious, and in part, his movements were answerable for the results at Gettysburg. There was no intention on either side to fight at that point, but an accidental encounter between cavalry corps on the 30th of June, led to another assault of a similar character at Willoughby's Run near Gettysburg, July 1st, when Gen. Buford with 4,000 horse, held the ground against 30,000 men of all arms; and so by the will of God the great battle was fought on the place allotted. Other forces rallied to the support of both sides, and the first day ended with some slight disadvantage to the Union forces; but they had taken up an impregnable position, and Seminary Ridge had given the troops confidence in themselves and in each other. There were about 75,000 men on the side of the union, and on the other side about 80,000. Lee's force was 100,000 when he started, but many had scattered beyond reach when

the battle commenced. The second day was a terrific struggle on both sides, but Lee had gained no advantage when the sun went down, nor afterwards when the battle was continued by moonlight, until both armies sought rest. The position taken by Sickles on the second day has been blamed by some military authorities, but the greatest authority we know, Gen. Grant, after surveying the battle field with a full knowledge of all the circumstances, pronounced Sickles to have been "right." The dawn of day on the third saw the battle recommenced at Culp's Hill, but the confederates were repulsed after a struggle which continued from about 6 in the morning until 11. There was a lull until about 1 P. M., when 150 great guns opened fire upon the federal position, and for two hours the atmosphere seemed freighted with death; then came the charge up Cemetery Ridge, one of the finest charges of the war: but heroism was met by heroism, and position told sufficiently to more than compensate for our disparity of numbers. The attack was a grand failure, and the battle of Gettysburg was won for the North. The losses on the part of the South were over 31,000, and Meade was generally blamed because he did not follow up his advantage. President Lincoln is reported to have said that "Providence had twice delivered the army of Northern Virginia into our hands, and with such opportunities neglected, we ought scarcely to hope for a third chance." Meade allowed Lee even to carry off the prisoners taken in the first two days, and slowly followed him to the Rapidan. Grant, in the same place, would have ended the war at Gettysburg. The campaign so ended closed out all fears of a northern invasion, and Lee slowly retired toward Richmond to wait the time for a surrender of his hopeless struggle. The veterans lost in the great battle, added to the death of Stonewall Jackson at Chancellorsville, had taken the heart almost entirely out of the once indomitable force.

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1863, tried to force his way to Charleston with eight ironclads, but after engaging Fort Sumter for nearly two hours, and having failed to silence the batteries, he drew off to reconsider the attack, and eventually concluded that Charleston could not be taken without a combined assault by land and sea. Fort Wagner was afterwards taken by regular approaches, and Fort Sumter reduced to ruins, but even then it was found impossible with the force at hand to effect a capture. Thus the year came to an end with results generally more favorable for the union arms, than any previous year since the rebellion commenced. The confederates claimed Chickamauga, but the victory was tempered by the heroism of Thomas. Chancellorsville was not a crushing defeat for our arms, and Galveston was the only considerable gain made by that side, except that Charleston had been held against our assaults. The record on our side had many brilliant features. The doubtful victory won by Bragg at Chickamauga had been followed by the destruction of his army at Chattanooga in the charge up Missionary Ridge. The battles before Vicksburg and the capture of that fortress city with the demolition of two armies, more than equalled in results the three days at Gettysburg. Port Hudson and Jackson were but small items in a return of such magnitude. The Mississippi had become ours. The confederates were cut off from supplies, Arkansas, East Tennessee, Mississippi, and much of Louisiana, with Texas to the Rio Grande, had submitted to union arms. There was substantial cause for rejoicing in the north, but the price was felt to be enormous. How much more terrible was the cost paid by the south for its terrific failure?

143.—LIEUT. GEN. GRANT had won the suffrage of all thinking men by his promptitude and capacity for command, before the command in chief of all the forces of the north was conferred upon him. Men spoke of his good fortune, which consisted in his leaving nothing to chance where his powers could be made

to cover an emergency. With ample authority and sufficient force, he was now to take supreme military control, and the armies of the north would move in concert. Grant assumed the task of subduing Lee in Virginia, devolving upon Sherman the duty to defeat Johnston in Georgia.

144.—ADVANCING ON ATLANTA. Gen. Joseph Elleston Johnston was stationed at Dalton, Ga., when Gen. Sherman moved upon his works, and he had prepared for the attack which must come by a series of almost impregnable lines, which must retard, and which might prevent, the capture of Atlanta. The advance, with 100,000 men, was made early in May, and Sherman was confronted by Johnston with only 54,000, who prudently avoided an engagement in the open country. At Resaca, Johnston defended his position with obstinate valor, repulsing Sherman with considerable loss, but Johnston, finding himself outflanked, retired successively to Adairsville and Cassville, hotly contesting every step. The Allatoona Pass was the scene of a very determined resistance, and many days elapsed before that position could be carried. Retreating then to Kenesaw Mountain, where his field works showed profound military science, and the flanks of his position were strengthened by Pine and Lost Mountains, Sherman was once more held at bay by his brave and able antagonist, losing 8,000 men in one assault, while the Confederate loss was 442. Outflanked at last, the Confederate General fell back on Atlanta on the 10th of July, having fought over one hundred miles of country more than two months against a force nearly twice as strong as his own, and as the reward for his arduous labors he was superseded at that point by Jefferson Davis, who could not appreciate the policy that was being pursued. Gen. Hood took command of the defense, and soon discovered that there was nothing before him but escape or surrender. After hard fighting and great losses on both sides, Hood evacuated the city of Atlanta and made a dash into Tennessee. At-

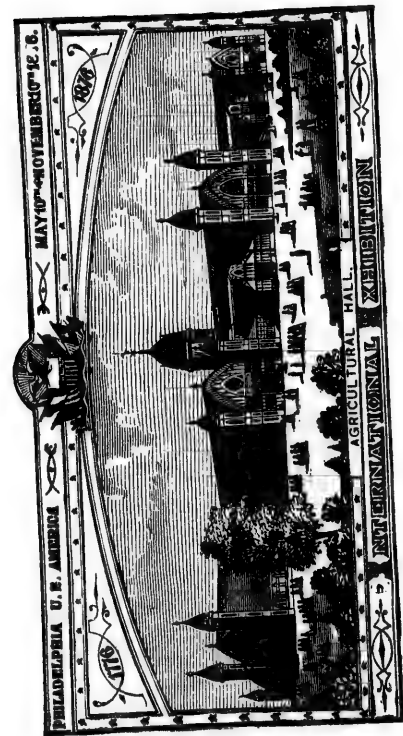
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lanta had long been a storehouse for the south, and it was now in our hands, having cost 30,000 on our side to 40,000 on the other. Before Sherman started from this position for his famous "March to the Sea," the inhabitants were, as a precautionary measure, driven from the city and the place reduced to ashes. The supplies of clothing, cannon, powder, wagons, harness, and cannon balls which had been drawn from Georgia were now no longer available for the southern armies. Ten battles had been won and lost, but the result attained was worth the fighting.

145.—THOMAS AT NASHVILLE. Hood, with an army of 45,000 men, abandoning Atlanta, sent a detachment to capture Allatoona, but sustained a repulse in that quarter, with terrible slaughter, at our hands. He surrounded Resaca, but did not dare an attack, as Sherman was close upon him, and from that point he commenced his march upon Tennessee. Sherman sent reinforcements to Gen. Thomas, at Nashville, and was ready to reorganize his force. Hood destroyed everything as he advanced, and recruited his ranks, until when he reached Pulaski his force had grown to 55,000, against which Thomas could only oppose 30,000, under the command of Schofield. The Union men retreated to Franklin, in a bend of the Harpeth, where, with 20,000 men, Schofield defended himself desperately against nearly 60,000, inflicting a loss of 5,000, and never losing a gun. Continuing his retreat in the night of November 30th, Schofield joined Thomas at Nashville, and the place was almost immediately besieged by Hood. There was an ominous inaction for about two weeks, but the "Rock of Chickamauga" was only biding his time. He permitted Hood to believe that there was a glorious career of victory before the Confederate arms in Tennessee, and then, when every preparation had been completed, sallied upon his besiegers, whom he defeated and drove in every direction, during two days of terrible fighting, December 15th and 16th. Thomas secured 72 guns,



12,000 prisoners, one of them a Major General, and more than 2,200 men took the amnesty oath as deserters. The overconfident Hood escaped over the Tennessee at Bainbridge with barely the fragment of an army. His force was not merely demoralized, it was destroyed. East Tennessee was cleared of armed Confederates, and it was evident, for the first time, that the war, in every department, had fallen into right hands. The war at the west was ended, save as to a few petty operations, and Sherman was already off upon his celebrated march.

146. — SHERMAN'S MARCH. Confident that Thomas could do all that was required in Tennessee, Sherman started from Atlanta on the 16th of November, with 65,500 men. Skirmishers and Kilpatrick's cavalry disguised the direction of the army as it moved onward in four columns, and none knew its direction until a place had been struck. Railroads and works likely to succor the Confederates were destroyed. Telegraph wires were cut so that no intelligence of his movements could be transmitted by such means, and in five weeks from the outset, with some fighting at river crossings, the army had reached the sea at Savannah. Fort McAllister on the Ogeechee, was carried by assault on the 13th of December, and seven days later Savannah was abandoned. The Confederacy was once more sundered. Sherman's subordinate officers had carried out his orders by distressing the Secessionists, and 167 guns, with over 1,800 prisoners and immense stores of provisions had been captured. The moral effect of that march, however, entirely transcended its physical results. The cannon and 25,000 bales of cotton were transmitted from Savannah to President Lincoln, as a Christmas present for the nation; and within a few days the march through Georgia was the only event of which any person spoke or sang.

147. — THE WILDERNESS. When the army under Grant had come into the Chancellorsville country,

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after crossing the Rapidan, the Confederate army under Lee attacked them, toiling along the narrow roads in the Wilderness. The butchery was terrible, but the men on both sides stood their ground with wondrous resolution. Two days the battle raged, and on the third both armies rested in their entrenchments. Grant's army was reduced by 20,000, Lee admitted a loss of 10,000, and there was some hope that the Union men would retire behind the Rapidan once more. Grant made other arrangements. The 5th and two following days had been spent in the Wilderness, and on the 8th of May he outflanked Lee, making for Spottsylvania Court House. The Confederate commander was playing his best card, defense, and every movement was calculated upon. When Grant arrived at his destination a Confederate army was before him, and for five days more there was hard pounding between men as nearly as possible compeers of each other in courage and skill. On the 12th of May, Grant determined that he would once more turn the right flank of his antagonist, but Lee divining the intention, was before him at the North Anna, and the battle of Cold Harbor resulted on the 3d of June. It was during this terrible series of battles that Grant wrote his well known dispatch: "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." The Commander-in-Chief came into this region with 111,000 men, and he was opposed by Lee on the defensive, with 75,000. Before reaching the James River he had lost 6,000 killed, 26,000 wounded and 7,000 missing. The Confederates carefully destroyed their own records of losses, consequently there is only a guess at results, but they captured only 6,000 prisoners, while Grant captured 10,000, and it is probable that in every particular their losses were nearly as great, perhaps greater than our own. Grant never fought harder battles than those in the Wilderness, at Spottsylvania, North Anna and Cold Harbor, but after every engagement Grant advanced and Lee lost ground. The

purpose in view was the annihilation of the army under Lee, as it was very evident that the Confederacy could never replace such soldiers in the field; and the loss of a few thousand human lives must not stand in the way of that result. The course of the army from the Rapidan to the James before the Confederate capital had been well considered, and the cost was on the whole more distressing to the south than to the north. The attack on Petersburg proved the prescience of Lee, as the works were so defended that nothing less than a regular siege could compel submission, and Grant commenced his intrenchments without delay. The works were begun in June.

148.—BEFORE RICHMOND. There were but few events of national importance in the early days of the siege upon this spot, but the whole military scheme of the Union converged here. The siege kept Lee so completely occupied that he could do nothing to assist the other victors, while Grant was calmly directing every considerable movement. The conquest of Atlanta and the march to the sea, all contributed to the success which had to be secured at Richmond. Thomas, reinforced, not only made Sherman's march a possibility, but destroyed an army also; and Sheridan, here, there, and everywhere, carried defeat into the enemy's ranks wherever he struck. The forces were not greatly dissimilar, allowing for the requirements of attack and defense. Grant, joined by Butler's force, had 110,000 men, and Lee had joined to his regular force of 75,000 men, 5,000 more, including the local militia and gunboat crews. There was an explosion of a mine under a fort at Petersburg on the 30th of July, and the work became a ruin; but the result was not of such a character as to enable our forces to carry Petersburg. The Weldon Railroad was captured by good strategy and hard fighting, on the 18th of August, and although Lee, knowing the importance of the communication, put forth all his powers to recapture that position, our lines permanently closed in upon him to that extent.

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The scheme which had so many times called off the Union forces from the Capital of the Confederacy was to be tried once more, and Washington was threatened; but Grant continued to devote his personal energy upon Lee, and made ample provision for the defense of the northern territory through other hands.

149. — CEDAR CREEK. Gen. Hunter had allowed himself to be deflected from the line of march planned for him, and there was in consequence an opportunity for Gen. Lee to dispatch Early along the Shenandoah Valley toward Washington, and on the 10th of July he threatened Fort Stevens, one of the defenses of the Capital, with 20,000 men. One day lost there, rendered action an impossibility, and, with some plunder, having burned a village, he was back in the Shenandoah. Sheridan, dispatched by Grant for the purpose, came down upon Early like a cyclone, striking him at Winchester, and again at Fisher's Hill, driving him apparently into thin air. The Confederate General, having been reinforced, struck Sheridan's camp at daylight on the 19th of October, at Cedar Creek, during the absence of Sheridan, and the left flank was turned and driven in confusion for some distance. Sheridan heard the cannonade and returned at full speed to find the aspect of affairs. His men felt his presence as an inspiration, and when he said to them, "Boys we are going back," there was no difficulty in routing the Confederates, recapturing his own guns and thirty pieces of artillery beside, releasing his own men and taking 2,000 prisoners before sundown. Early and his force were completely broken by this brilliant campaign of only one month, and Washington was threatened no more.

150. — RED RIVER. The joint expedition on Red River, which was to have captured Shreveport, proved a failure because of the incompetency of Gen. Banks, who was routed by the Confederates at Sabine Cross Roads. Gen. Banks was at once relieved of his command.

151.—MOBILE was the object of an expedition under the command of Admiral Farragut, and his ships fought their way past the Confederate forts to engage the Iron Clad fleet, all of which were captured or put to flight. The Iron Ram, Tennessee, was one of the prizes.

152.—FORT FISHER, the defense of Wilmington Harbor, N. C., was attacked by Commodore Porter, and a land force under Gen. Butler, Dec. 24-25, but after bombarding the fort, Butler was convinced it could not be taken, so he returned to Fortress Monroe. The fleet remained off the harbor, as Porter was certain that the fort could be reduced, and upon his request the troops originally sent were returned to him with 1,500 more, and the works were carried by a hand to hand fight on the 15th of January, 1865; the assailants being two columns, one of soldiers and the other of sailors. The defenders behaved heroically.

153.—RESULTS OF THE CAMPAIGN. The unification of our war under the Lieutenant General showed excellent results. The blockade had become so effectual that the Confederacy was at its last gasp. Fort Fisher just taken closed the last Confederate port. Confederate cruisers, so called, had damaged our commerce, but the south was without commerce of any kind. The Alabama, suffered by British officialism to escape from an English port, had done immense injury, for which Great Britain ultimately paid; and before the war ended, Capt. Winslow of the Kearsarge, destroyed that vessel off Cherbourg harbor, Commander Semmes escaping in an English yacht after he had surrendered. The wants of the men under arms, and more especially of the wounded and suffering, called forth an amount of philanthropy in all classes, such as was never excelled in the annals of civilization. Over \$17,000,000 was expended by the Sanitary and Christian commissions in such works of mercy; their modes of operation being numberless. Despite the load of debt incurred by the administra-

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tion in conducting the war, Abraham Lincoln, renomi-
nated by the Republican party, with George B. Mc-
Clellan for his opponent, put forward by the Dem-
ocrats, carried the Union by a majority of over 400,-
000, and McClellan had only three states. The gains
of the Confederacy in field or fort, this year, had been
small indeed. Olustee and the Sabine Cross Roads,
Bermuda Hundred and Monocacy were all their vic-
tories, except that they held Grant at arms length at
Richmond, and had defeated expeditions at Red River
and into Florida. On every side they were giving way.
North and South Carolina were their only states east
of the Mississippi. Mississippi, Alabama, Virginia,
Tennessee, Georgia and Florida had been overrun by
our troops. The Wilderness, Spottsylvania and Cold
Harbor had been followed by the results of victory
for the North, and there had been undoubted victories
for our arms at Resaca, Dallas, Kenesaw and Atlanta;
at Pleasant Hill, Winchester, Fisher's Hill, Cedar
Creek and at Nashville. The forts in Mobile Harbor,
Fort McAllister, Fort DeRussy, the march through
Georgia, the capture of Atlanta and Savannah; the
devastation of the Shenandoah Valley, and the demo-
lition of its army of defense, the annihilation of
Hood's army by Thomas, the coast blockaded by
our navy, the destruction of the flotilla at Mobile
and the firm grasp by Grant of every avenue to vic-
tory as well as of Lee and the last shred of Con-
federate force at Richmond, left it now only a ques-
tion of a few months at farthest, when the rebellion
should be reckoned among the things of the past.

154.—THE LAST CAMPAIGN. The beginning of
the end had come, and already the Union forces were
concentrating upon Richmond with the desire of the
hunter to be in at the death. Sherman, after a
brief rest at Savannah, had only to end the military
career of Johnston and he could then join Grant.
Sheridan was already in the lines of circumvallation.
Wilson and Stoneman were within hail ready for

whatever duty the commander-in-chief might find necessary, and the courage of the nation stood never at a higher pitch of enthusiasm.

155.—**SHERMAN'S MARCH** through the Carolinas from Savannah, commenced February 1, 1865, after a brief rest, was a movement as rapid as the conditions of the time and hot haste could render possible. Rivers that had no bridges, without a long distance, were waded, and one battle was fought by his army shoulder deep in a stream. Grant's orders were, that he should come north without delay, and Sherman obeyed to the letter and spirit. Fifty miles was his front, and the army, 60,000 strong, marched in four columns leaving the broad print of their footsteps in desolation. Hardee evacuated Charleston and retreated north towards Lee with 12,000 men. Columbia, the state capital, was burned by accident. Kilpatrick, routed by a sudden rush of Wade Hampton's forces, recovered the surprise, gathered up his men, and retrieved his fortune. Fayetteville, North Carolina, saw the first decided stand against our armies. Johnston had collected 40,000 men under Beauregard, Hardee, Cheatham and Bragg, with cavalry forces under Wheeler and Hampton. A halt was called on the 11th of March, to mass the forces of the Union, and on the 15th the word was once more, "Forward." Hardee, on the left wing, attacked him in a narrow pass, but the force was beaten off. The right was attacked near Bentonville by Johnston with his main body, but there was another defeat for the Confederates on the 18th. Halting his forces at Goldsboro on the 19th of March, Sherman hastened forward to City Point to consult with his commander. A junction of forces between Lee and Johnston was now the forlorn hope of the Confederates, and the chance was microscopic, with Grant on the alert as usual and so many forces converging toward the Union lines. Still Lee would not abandon his hope as long as a possibility remained.

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156. — BEFORE RICHMOND AGAIN. An attack on the right was the device that was to divert Grant's attention from the more important movements contemplated by the Confederate General, and Fort Stedman was surprised and captured at daybreak, March 25th, with a loss of two thousand five hundred troops on either side, including the assault by which the position was recovered, and Lee lost 2,000 prisoners out of his force of only 5,000. Hardly 500 returned to report the substantial failure, and Grant not called off from his main purpose, closed in with fatal tenacity upon the works. He saw that the time for the evacuation or surrender of Richmond was at hand, and his watchfulness was communicated to every man in the ranks.

157. — FIVE FORKS. The movement of Sheridan toward Five Forks was part of a much larger operation commenced by Grant on the last day of March, to turn Lee's right. The Confederate General fought with his whole force to avoid the calamity; but on the first of April, the brilliant affair at Five Forks completed the operation, taking nearly 5,000 prisoners, and rendering Lee's position, in a military sense, untenable. Our loss was only about 1,000, and the end was now within easy reach.

158. — PETERSBURG AND RICHMOND were evacuated on the following days in consequence of an advance of the whole line upon the works. President Davis was informed soon after 10 in the morning of the 2d, that the city could be held no longer, and before the next morning at 4, Richmond, damaged as much by fires and explosions as their means would permit, had been abandoned by the army under Lee, whose hope now was that he might escape from the toils of his able adversary. Davis escaped to Danville hoping to hear tidings of success in the field from Lee, but the case was hopeless. He then fled toward Johnston, and remained a while at Greensboro, N. C., but seeing no hope there, started for Georgia with a cavalry force of 2,000, which soon dwindled to very meager propor-

tions. Then putting aside the dignity of office, he tried to escape with his family, and was captured on the 10th of May, to be confined in Fortress Monroe for two years, and then liberated on the bail of Horace Greeley, a monument of northern mercy. Turning now to Lee, a lion at bay, we find him at Amelia Court House with 35,000 men, trying in vain to provision his army, and with Grant close upon his tracks, outnumbered, outgeneralled, borne down at every point, his ranks thinned by the hourly desertions of starving men, whole corps surrounded and captured, the heroic defender of the cause of the confederacy, proposed to meet Grant and discuss the terms of peace. Hemmed in on all sides, he was at the mercy of his foes, but he was still a brave man, and that secured him consideration. Grant could offer no terms but to receive his surrender, and on the 9th of April he accepted that hard condition in the open field at Appomattox Court House, with all that remained of his once powerful army, now reduced to 27,000 men. An army of 70,000 men had been annihilated in ten days, and there was no longer a plank on which the Confederacy could float. His treatment of Lee had in it so much of magnanimity, that the outlying generals speedily came in to share the terms upon which the war ended. There were some operations after this date and before the news could be flashed along the coast; but the Rebellion had now been extinguished in the blood of nearly a million of men.

159. — CONSUMMATION OF THE TRAGEDY. Grant returned to Washington to disband the army which had won such laurels; and there on the 14th of April, Abraham Lincoln was assassinated, in the midst of our universal rejoicings. Grant had been invited to share the President's box that night in Ford's Theatre, but his engagements prevented acceptance, or perhaps he also would have fallen a victim to the savage hate of men who could not appreciate the mercy shown to their misguided champions. The news went over the

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TRAGEDY. Grant d the army which n the 14th of April, in the midst of our en invited to share Ford's Theatre, but ance, or perhaps he the savage hate of e mercy shown to news went over the

land and around the world with the effect of a funeral pall in the presence of a bridal party, and such tears were shed, even in distant lands, over the heroic life thus ended, as told of an influence over the souls of civilized man everywhere, unexampled in the history of rulers.

160. — COMPARED WITH LINCOLN'S DEATH, men all over the Union held the heavy cost of the war as nothing. Three hundred thousand of our brave fellow citizens had died facing the foe in battle array, or in diseases superinduced by war; two hundred thousand maimed and crippled remained to tell of the struggles through which the Union had passed, and the armies in grey had probably suffered more severely; our debt had increased to \$2,750,000,000; but all these items were as nothing for a time in the presence of that soul of mercy and patriotism, slaughtered by an insane zealot with the cry *Sic semper tyrannis*. The words seemed accursed, and the cowardly rage which at such an hour could fruitlessly slaughter the best man of his time and country, procured as it merited the reprobation of the human race. The end of the Lincoln epoch had arrived. Andrew Johnson had become President; but upon the hero of the war, after Lincoln our greatest man, all eyes were turned. The nation was growing and demanded able administration, for even while the war progressed, new States had sought admission to the Union. West Virginia and Nevada had brought up our numbers to thirty-six in June, 1863, and in October, 1864; besides which the problem of reabsorbing the seceded states presented a task for every leading mind to ponder.

Johnson and the Republic, 1865-1869.

161. — THE NEW PRESIDENT had no claims upon the Republic, except that he, being a life-long democrat, had remained faithful to the Union, and it was not long before his imperious disposition had antagonized most of the Republican leaders. Two men more completely unlike than Johnson and his great prede-

cessor could hardly be found. The new President assumed the duties of his office within a few hours of the death of Abraham Lincoln, and the work of the administration suffered changes but no pause. Grant was already disbanding the army, having dismissed the Confederate soldiery upon their parol. The terms extended to Lee and the brave men who had fought under him would have been annulled by Johnson, but Grant came to the rescue, and the indictment for treason which impended was reluctantly abandoned. The President would fain carry Grant's approval with him in the devious courses which already promised an extension of rule, as the name of the successful General was a tower of strength all over the Union. Congress was eager to crown him with honors; private citizens, in their bounty and munificence, gave him wealth and possessions; he was the hero of society.

162. — RECONSTRUCTION caused a quarrel between Congress and the President, who recognized state governments in Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas and Louisiana, and appointed provisional officers in the other states which had seceded, claiming that the Union had never been broken, and that therefore they had never actually lost their rights by their abortive secession. Conventions met in the states provisionally officered, repudiated secession ordinances and the war debt incurred in the south, and ratified emancipation. The policy of Johnson was now to remove all legal disabilities, proclaim amnesty to secessionist offenders, except a specified class, on their subscribing the oath of allegiance, and still later, full pardons at successive stages were given to all secessionists. Before that point was reached the Thirteenth Amendment, ratified by the states, was engrossed in the Constitution, December 28, 1865. The facility with which Johnson granted pardons upon personal applications was one cause of complaint against him.

163. — CONGRESS TOOK ISSUE against the Presidential policy, as it was claimed the power to readmit be-

The new President assumed a few hours of the work of the administration. Grant was dismissed the President. The terms of the President who had fought under Johnson, but indictment for treason abandoned. The approval with him promised an unsuccessful General of the Union. Congress; private citizens, gave him wealth and society.

A quarrel between recognized state governments. Arkansas and Louisiana officers in the other that the Union had before they had never an abortive secession. Provisionally officered, and the war debt in emancipation. The move all legal disabilities offenders, except subscribing the oath of pardons at successive points. Before that Amendment, ratified the Constitution, De- with which Johnson applications was one

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longed to that body. Proclamations and orders, while the land was at peace, could have no power, in the eyes of Congress, and bills were passed over the veto, providing for the continuance in office of civil servants until the Senate indorsed their removal; the protection of freedmen and destitute whites in the south, and for the security of the colored race in their newly conferred civil rights. These acts, covering the Freedmen's Bureau, tenure of office, and civil rights, constituted an open breach. Tennessee was restored to her position, having accepted the fourteenth amendment, but the other states, under Johnson's provisional appointees, refusing acquiescence, were placed under military rule March 2, 1867. Generals in charge of the contumacious districts conducted elections to remodel state constitutions, and after much bitterness there were governments established in the several states on such terms as satisfied the demands of Congress. One state will serve to illustrate the action everywhere, as the general features were the same, and local peculiarities are of little moment here. The State of Arkansas, controlled by Union troops in 1864, amended its constitution and reorganized its legislature; but when the test was applied by Congress, the state, willing to accept readmission to its former rights, would not remove the disabilities of the Union party. Military rule succeeded for four years, and in 1868, all the demands of Congress having been conceded, the state was readmitted to the Union, over the veto of President Johnson. Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, and North and South Carolina came in at the same time, June 24, 1868, under similar conditions. Thus stood the quarrel between the executive and the legislative branches of the government for years, while the country pursued its course, slowly recovering its former tone. The revenues at the close of the war, from revenue stamps, taxes on incomes and manufactures, duties on imports and other sources, reached the enormous aggregate of \$300,000,000 per year; but the interest on the war

debt was \$130,000,000; still the debt had been reduced by \$31,000,000 in 1866, before the extra troops had been entirely disbanded.

164. — THE REMOVAL OF STANTON, the Secretary of War, by the President in August, 1867, was submitted to under protest by Mr. Stanton as contrary to the "Tenure of Office Act," passed in March. Gen. Grant was appointed in his stead by the President, and congress gave him such powers as subordinates seldom hold, so complete was their distrust of Johnson, but congress would not confirm the removal of Stanton. For some time Grant was able to pursue his course, not conflicting with either side; but eventually when it became necessary to break the law or break with Johnson, he cast his lot against the President. The popularity of Grant rose to a greater height than ever. Johnson had no popularity save among the men who had endeavored to break the union.

165. — IMPEACHING THE PRESIDENT was the final stroke of Congress, the order being made by an immense majority on the 24th of February, 1868. The trial commenced on the 23d day of March, 1868, and resulted, on the 16th and 25th of May, in 35 votes against the President, to 19 in his favor. One vote changed and he would have been convicted of high crimes and misdemeanors by the required two-thirds majority. The remainder of his term in office was comparatively peaceful, and after its expiring he retired to Tennessee, where after two failures to secure election, he was sent to the United States senate in 1875, and died in office July 31st, in the same year.

166. — GEN. SHERIDAN was commissioned to suppress the Indian war in the southwest, which had grown to considerable dimensions in 1865-6, but the battle of Wacheta terminated the struggle in 1868, when Black Kettle, and a large body of his braves were surprised and slain by Custer's cavalry.

167. — EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN. Louis Napoleon, of France, hoped for a confederate success, and while

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the war was pending, he assisted the Imperialist faction in Mexico to a temporary ascendancy, during which the Archduke Maximilian, of Austria, was chosen Emperor. The United States protested at the time against Napoleon's intervention, but while the civil war was pending, nothing more could be accomplished. The "Monroe Doctrine" came into operation as soon as the war was ended, and under our pressure the French troops were recalled, whereupon Maximilian was shot by the Mexican liberals. The conduct of Napoleon in receding from the support of Maximilian has been much blamed, but the astute emperor of France saw that he must be defeated in a prolonged contest with this nation.

168.—JOINING THE NATIONS. Cyrus W. Field conceived the idea in 1853, of uniting this continent to Europe by an electric cable, but the work was encompassed by so many difficulties, that two cables had been lost before 1856. Further attempts were made in 1857 and in 1858, the British government and our own supplying the necessary ships, but the only result was a partial and temporary success in 1858. While the war lasted capital was not available to renew the enterprise, but in 1865 the penultimate effort came so near success, that the cable was spliced and completed in 1866, after thirteen years heroic effort. The triumph for humanity cannot be stated in words.

169.—WILLIAM H. SEWARD, Secretary of State, conducted the purchase of Alaska from the Russian government in 1867, the price paid for the peninsula 350 miles long, by 25 miles average breadth, being \$7,200,000. This region has since been annexed to Washington territory, its area being 580,107 square miles. The Fenian raid upon Canada, in 1866, was an attempt to embroil this country in a war with England for petty purposes, but there was no success attending the movement, and those who took part in it were made prisoners by our troops on their return to this territory. The treaty with China in 1868, when an

embassy came to Washington from that empire, under Anson Burlingame, opened up to this country a much wider field for commercial enterprise than had ever before been enjoyed by western nations, and the results of that movement are still progressing. The services of Mr. Seward under the Presidency of Lincoln and the attempt to assassinate him at the same time as the President fell, concentrated upon that able public servant much attention, which was well deserved. The conclusion of the Johnson term of office was near at hand, he had "swung round the circle" in vain, the nomination sought by him from the Democrats was not procured, and the Republicans nominated and elected Gen. Grant, by a demonstrative majority, Schuyler Colfax being elected Vice President. The nomination of the Democrats was given to Horatio Seymour and Gen. Frank P. Blair.

Grant and the Republic. 1869-1877.

170. — GRANT'S TERMS. The enmity manifested by the late President had by no means impaired the popularity of the General, and his election was considered certain from the first. His administration during the first term was peculiarly propitious for the nation, as the strifes which arose out of the war largely ceased after his inauguration on the 4th of March, 1869. The war debt continued to be reduced, and the Alabama claims were, during his Presidency, referred to the arbitration of the Congress appointed by both powers, under the award of which Great Britain paid \$15,500,000 for actual losses of ships' cargoes and interest consequent upon that government having failed in due diligence in regard to the Alabama and the Florida privateers. The rules for international government suggested by the award of the Tribunal at Geneva are even more valuable than the sum paid by England in pursuance of that decision. During the latter part of the first term, many of the Republicans withdrew from the Republican party and ran Horace Greeley for the Presidency, in conjunction with the

that empire, under this country a much more than had ever before, and the results of the services of Lincoln and the same time as the great public service he deserved. The office was near at hand in vain, from the Democrats publicans nominated demonstrative made Vice President. was given to Horatio

1869-1877.

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Democratic section of politicians; but the result proved that the General's popularity had not waned with the masses, as he received a larger vote on that occasion and a larger majority than any former President since the nomination of Gen. Washington.

171.—THE UNION PACIFIC RAILROAD, afterwards disastrous to many reputations, and often referred to as an evidence of the corruption that almost invariably grows out of civil wars, was in its inception a grand work, and it has been found of such value for the facilities which it affords to commerce and passengers between the Atlantic and the Pacific coasts, that men are constrained to wonder how the business of the world was conducted before Boston, New York, Philadelphia and Washington were joined by the iron road to San Francisco, so that freight and travel can pass from one ocean to the other in the brief space of one week, and without the luxurious traveler losing one hour of his accustomed sleep.

172.—THE FIFTEENTH AMENDMENT, guarantying to every man the right of suffrage without regard to "race, color or previous condition of servitude," originated under the administration of President Grant, and having been duly ratified, was announced as part of the Constitution on the 30th of March, 1870. The negro is now under no disability in this country save such as that under which he labors by the law of nature. The Revolution of 1776 has thus been carried to its legitimate conclusion.

173.—GENERAL AMNESTY. The nation having, to a great extent, recovered from the effects of the war, and popular feelings having considerably softened as regards the South and its ill starred effort, a general amnesty was proclaimed which covered all persons connected with the civil war; but the South cannot forget her own errors and sufferings so readily as the North, and in consequence the work of reconstruction within the law goes on much more slowly than the legislative action of Congress. It is not easy for men

who have been from their birth accustomed to look upon colored persons as chattels and subordinates, to submit to a reconstruction which raises the negro in an electoral and legal sense to their level, but slowly or not, the work progresses, and the next generation will see the Southern states far on the way toward the North in general prosperity. It is much to the credit of the North that a man of such strength of mind and power over human affections as Alexander Hamilton Stephens, Vice President of the Confederate States, is now a member of Congress against whom no man cites his career in that office to his discredit, but it is often remembered by his personal friends who are many, even among his political antagonists, that on the night of November 14, 1860, in the legislature that had already resolved upon secession, this man exerted all his eloquence to prevent the decision being arrived at; to which, once passed, he loyally adhered through peril and storm.

174.—HORACE GREELEY'S CANDIDATURE and death illustrate the strong feeling which prevailed among certain classes against Gen. Grant's reelection. If there was a man in the Union for whom the South had a hatred, which was not relieved by personal regard, that man was the Editor of the New York *Tribune*; yet all that animosity was smothered in the intense desire to defeat Grant; and after the Liberal convention in Cincinnati in May, 1872, had given Greeley their nomination, the Democratic convention in Baltimore in the following July presented him to the Union as their candidate also for the office of President. There were then, as there are now and will be for many years to come, whether the party in charge of public affairs may be changed or not, awkward suspicions of jobbing and corruption among high officers in the state, and in consequence many who had been supporters of the Republican party were inclined to draw back from the organization at that time; besides which there was a belief that the men of the North

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and South would shake hands across the bloody chasm, under a President nominated by the South, in conjunction with the North; but all these circumstances combined, added to feelings of personal love which were inspired by Greeley among those who knew his sterling qualities, could not save him from a terrible defeat, which unsettled his mental and bodily health, and terminated his life on the 29th of November, 1872.

175.—SCHUYLER COLFAX, who was Vice President with Grant during the first term of office, came of good lineage, being a grandson of one of Washington's Generals. From 1854 to 1869, he sat in congress as one of the Representatives of Indiana, and during six reelections his record was unimpeached. The conflict in Kansas called him to the front in congress, in 1856, when he depicted in eloquent terms the sufferings and wrongs of the free settlers. From his general suavity and evident capacity, Mr. Colfax was chosen Speaker of the House in 1863, the like honor being conferred upon him again in 1865 and in 1867; and it was said of him that he proved himself the most popular Speaker of the House since Henry Clay. When the nominations were made by the Republican party in May, 1868, his name was associated with that of Gen. Grant. It assisted him materially with the people that he had been during the civil war one of the steadiest and most trusted friends of Abraham Lincoln. The election in November, 1868, gave to the Republican ticket 214 electoral votes out of a total of 294. The name of Mr. Colfax became unpleasantly mixed up with the proceedings of "The Credit Mobilier of America," an organization chartered in Pennsylvania in 1859, and reorganized in 1864, to carry on the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad. The breath of suspicion which then for the first time blurred the good repute of Mr. Colfax, prevented his renomination, probably, in 1872, but it is only just to the ex-Vice President to say, that there was no evidence of corrupt action on his part, and that

his entire innocence of the charges laid at his door is an article of faith with millions of his countrymen. There was a large party in the country only too glad to bring down a man of such high standing in the ranks of the Republicans, because their chances must needs be improved by the defeat of their political opponents, and for that reason it was deemed advisable to substitute the name of Henry Wilson as Vice President in the second nomination of Gen. Grant.

176. — OAKES AMES, son of a blacksmith in Easton, Mass., and himself brought up to the same trade, having become wealthy as a manufacturer of Agricultural implements, was in great repute as a financier in congress, where he sat for eleven years, from 1862 to 1873. When the Union Pacific Railroad was to be constructed, Mr. Ames was one of the manipulators of the Credit Mobilier, and when later than this, there was a congressional investigation as to his proceedings among his fellow members, he appears to have either wantonly, or by inadvertance, cast a stigma on Mr. Colfax, by exhibiting in his writing upon a check for a considerable sum, the initials of "S. C.," which he construed to mean Schuyler Colfax. There was, however, no evidence that the money went into the hands of the Vice President, and there is positive evidence that the check never went through his account. Oakes Ames died May 8, 1873, while the public mind was still undecided as to his share in the transaction.

177. — HENRY WILSON, the successor of Schuyler Colfax, commenced life as a New Hampshire farm lad, with the barest rudiments of an education, to which he added all that lay in his power after arriving at man's estate. Not a great man himself, it was his good fortune to be born at an era when simple fortitude and honesty secured him association with some of the foremost minds of his time after he had made his way upward from the humble occupation in which he began life. Mr. Wilson was one of the fastest friends of Charles Sumner, and after the shameful assault

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upon that gentleman by Preston S. Brooks, his re-
marks in congress had the effect of concentrating upon
him the hatred of the proslavery party for a time.
During his term of office he was distinguished by his
kind and conciliatory tone towards every section of
the community, and he died before his term of office
had expired. He appears to have been one of the
stockholders in the Credit Mobilier organization, but
to have gone into the venture as a mere business spec-
ulation, without any knowledge of a current purpose
being entertained by any of the parties. Unfortu-
nately, so many schemes of personal aggrandizement
have been traced to congress within the past few
years, in the fearless investigations originated by the
Republican party, irrespective of persons, place or
associations, that the public have become censorious
and suspicious, and for that reason the record of
Henry Wilson was very narrowly scanned by friends
and foes, but no damaging fact could be discovered.

178. — GENERAL INCREASE. There was a pro-
posal that Santa Domingo, forming part of the Island
of Hayti, should be annexed to the United States,
and a committee of eminent men nominated by the
President to visit the Island and report upon the prop-
osition, was very favorably impressed in 1871, but
congress was not convinced by the report submitted,
and the application was not acceded to. Cuba has
peculiar claims upon this country, considering its geo-
graphical position, and the brave struggle that has
been maintained by its people for many years against
the oppressive and soulless rule of Spain; but the
country has not yet seen its way to an assumption of
the quarrel, and after viewing the question from every
point, it does not appear to be the manifest duty of
this government alone to right the wrong of Cuba, un-
less other circumstances should require war with
Spain, and the release of Cuba should then arise as an
incident in our proceedings. Nebraska came into the
Union thirty-seventh in the list of states, on the first

of March, 1867, having been organized as a territory under the same act as Kansas, in the year 1854. The first named state had not the same charms for a slaveholding proprietary as Kansas, and therefore it grew more slowly than its neighbor and was saved from the terrible warfare that distracted Kansas for years. The state will advance by slow degrees to very considerable importance, but for many reasons does not seem likely to keep pace with Kansas, which has advantages as to soil and a very considerable start in population. Colorado has also been admitted as a state.

XIII. SKETCHES OF STATES.

Alabama.

1. — The area of the State is 50,772 square miles. This region was first explored by the Spainards and French; first settled by the latter in 1702, at Mobile. The name of the state was taken from the Alibamons, an Indian tribe near the Gulf Coast. Its signification is unknown. Until 1798 Alabama formed part of the State of Georgia. In that year it was organized as a territory, embracing also the country subsequently included in Mississippi. In 1819 it was admitted into the Union.

2. — The mineral treasures of Alabama, although not so valuable as those of the more western states, are of considerable importance. Gold is found in the central part of the state, but only in small quantities. Iron ore and marble are also found, and the coal measures of value cover an extensive area in the northern part of the state.

3. — Alabama has a warm, semi-tropical climate. The northern part is much colder than the southern, not only on account of its higher latitude, but also of its greater elevation.

4. — Alabama belongs to the great forest region of the continent. The northern part of the state was, or is still, to a considerable extent, covered with forests of hickory, poplar, cheshnut, oak, maple, mulberry,

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etc. In the southern part of the state there occurs a fair growth of magnolia, and other sub-tropical trees, while the extensive tracts of country, consisting of drift ridges and sandy plains, produce the pitch, and other southern pines. The river bottoms are covered with cottonwood trees and canebrakes.

5.—The animals of Alabama present no very attractive features. In the thinly settled sections, there still occur bears, deer, wolves, foxes, raccoons and opossums. The rivers abound with fish, water turtles, and, in the southern part alligators. The rattlesnake is not unfrequently met with.

6.—The population in 1870 was 996,992 (521,482 were white, and 475,510 colored). Of the whole, 987,080 were native of the United States, and only 9,962 born in foreign countries.

7.—Alabama is an agricultural state. In 1860, there were over 19,000,000 acres in farms, and in 1870, although the number of acres was less, the number of farms was greater. The great staple of the state is cotton. In commerce and manufacturing the state is making very considerable progress.

8.—The state government is nearly the same as that of other states, differing only in unimportant particulars. The governor, lieutenant governor, secretary of state, treasurer and attorney general, are chosen for two years by the electors of the state. The auditor is chosen for one year. The elections take place on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The House of Representatives must not exceed 100 members; the Senate must be not less than one-fourth and not more than one third of the number of representatives. All male residents of the state 21 years old, born in the United States or naturalized, who have resided in the state six months preceding an election, shall be citizens. The supreme court consists of a chief justice and associate judges, and has appellate jurisdiction only.

9.—The constitution provides for the establish-

ment throughout the state, in each township, of one or more free schools. The University of Alabama, located at Tuscaloosa, is placed under the management of the board of education. The Medical College of Alabama, located in Mobile, and the Law School at Montgomery, which were chartered in 1860, are branches or departments of the University.

Arkansas.

10. — The area of the state is 52,198 square miles. It was first settled by the French, in 1685, at Arkansas Post. The state derives its name from the Arkansas tribe of Indians. The territory was originally embraced within the boundaries of Louisiana, and was purchased, in 1803, from the French government, by Thomas Jefferson. In 1812, it was separated from Louisiana and organized into a separate Territory, and in 1836 it was admitted as a state.

11. — This state possesses valuable mineral resources. Zinc and iron are found in large quantities. Lead is also abundant, and copper occurs in some localities. There is a considerable deposit of Arkansas whetstone, which is considered the best in the world. Coal is also found. The state abounds in many fine mineral springs.

12. — The climate in Arkansas is mild and agreeable. The soil is mostly covered with pine forests, although there are some prairies of considerable extent. Grand Prairie is nearly one hundred miles long and thirty miles broad. In the hilly parts the forests consist of oak, maples, hickory, etc., while the rivers are fringed with groves of cottonwood, cypress and gum trees. In the southern part of the state pine forests predominate.

13. — Agriculture is the principal industry of the state, and the staple product is cotton. Stock raising is conducted on a large scale. Manufacturing is on the increase, and there are ample facilities for the encouragement of that industry. Arkansas has a large river trade, exporting all surplus products to New Or-

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14.— The constitution provides that the general assembly shall establish and maintain free schools. It further provides for a state university, with an agricultural department. The state board of education consists of a superintendent and ten district superintendents. The progress of education in the state has not been great, but efforts in that direction are now meeting with better encouragement, and there are promises of improvement. The state institutions are in a fair state of efficiency.

15.— The government of the state has but few notable features. The governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, attorney-general and superintendent of public schools, are chosen by the qualified electors of the state for a term of four years. The house of representatives consists of 82 members, chosen for two years, and the senate, of 24 members, chosen for four years. The legislature meets every two years, on the first Monday of January. All male persons, born in the United States, or naturalized, or having declared their intention to become citizens of the United States, who are twenty-one years old and upward, shall have resided in the state for six months next preceding an election, and are at the time actual residents of the county in which they offer to vote, are electors. The supreme court consists of a chief justice and four associate justices. It has appellate jurisdiction and the supervision of all inferior courts. It holds annually two terms. The judges of the supreme court are appointed by the governor for eight years. The circuit courts have original jurisdiction over criminal cases not otherwise provided for by law. The judges and attorneys of the district courts are appointed for four years by the governor, with the advice and consent of the senate.

California.

16.— The area of California has been computed at

160,000 square miles. The lands subject to overflow, known as the "Tule lands," comprise 5,000,000 acres, and the mountains cover an area of nearly 26,000,000 acres. California was ceded to the United States by the treaty of peace which terminated the war with Mexico in 1848, and was admitted into the Union as a state in 1850. The state was first settled by the Spaniards, in 1769, at San Diego. It derives its name from a character in an old romance. The climatic conditions of the state vary according to location and elevation, but upon the whole the state has a very healthy climate, both for animal and vegetable life.

17.—The vegetation of the state is remarkable. The number of species of trees is small compared with those of the eastern portions of the continent, nor is the extent and compactness of forest nearly so great as there. The great interior valley consists mainly of prairies, only the water courses being fringed with narrow belts of cottonwood and other deciduous trees. The coast ranges produce forests not remarkable for variety or extent. The valleys are park-like, as the trees grow in graceful clumps. Various kinds of oak and conifers predominate everywhere. The shrubby undergrowth consists of the "chamiro," the "manzanita," called by the settler the "California lilac," and various shrubby oaks, each furnished with as many thorns as there are points to leaves and branches, making what is known as the "chaparral," impenetrable thickets, rendering part of the state quite inaccessible. The glory of the coast ranges is the red wood (*sequoia sempervirens*), a coniferous tree of great size and beauty of form. It frequently attains a height of 275 feet, and a circumference at the base of 50 feet. In the Sierra Nevada there are extensive forests, consisting mainly of pines, firs and other coniferous trees. The most remarkable species among these is the "Big Tree" (*sequoia gigantea*), which is found exclusively scattered over limited areas in the Sierra, over 4,000 feet above the sea level, and, as far as known, between 36° and

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38° 15' latitude. There are eight distinct patches or groves of big trees. The one in Calaveras county, on the road which crosses the Sierra at the Silver Pass, was the first discovered and is the most accessible. It contains about one hundred trees, varying in height from 256 to 325 feet, and in circumference, ten feet above the ground, from 31 to 45 feet. There are other groves similar to it.

18.— In relation to mining, very much more might be said than our space can admit of. The first gold discovery was made in 1848, by I. W. Marshall, while digging a race for a saw mill of Capt. Sutter. As soon as the news of it became known, thousands of adventurers from the eastern states, from Europe, and even from distant China, flocked to the land of promise, and ever since, California has held the first place among the gold producing countries of the world. Gold is obtained by being washed out of the soil, or by crushing the quartz rock containing the metallic veins, in mills. The washing process on a small scale is called "placer mining," and is not now much followed in the state. Hydraulic mining is placer mining on a large scale, and is still a highly remunerative pursuit. It requires much outlay of capital. Large quantities of water are carried down from the mountains in flumes or ditches, and immense hills, hundreds of feet high, are washed away until the gold bearing gravel is reached. The metal is saved in long sluice boxes, through which the earth and water are run, in the bottom of which gold is caught by quicksilver; then the mass of earth and gravel is run off into some deep valley or river, and it is this operation which often renders hydraulic mining so extremely costly. The chief process of obtaining gold in California at present is quartz mining, and this is likely to remain, as the veins are rich and abundant. Silver mining is also carried on to a large extent.

19.— Agriculture is a prominent and paying industry in California. The rains begin late in October;

the grass is green all winter; plowing begins on the first of December, and sowing is continued even into March. Thus the farmer has three or four months to put in his crops. Corn is planted from March to May, and harvested as late as December. After the middle of April the rains cease, and the whole harvest season is absolutely without rain. The great valleys of the San Joaquin and the Sacramento embrace the far greater part of the farming lands of California; but many of the valleys of the coast ranges, and those south of the San Bernardino Mountains, are equally productive. With so large a body of most fertile lands and so favorable a climate, provided the farmer adapts himself to the peculiarity of the seasons, agriculture is already the principal occupation of California.

20.—The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Comptroller, Treasurer, Attorney-General, Surveyor-General, and Superintendent of Public Instruction are chosen for four years, commencing with the first Monday in December after election. The last election for state officers was in September, 1875. The legislature meets biennially on the first Monday of December of the odd years. It consists of forty Senators and eighty Representatives. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and four Associate Justices. It has appellate jurisdiction in all cases of equity, in all cases involving the title or possession of real estate, or in which the matter in controversy amounts to \$300, and in all criminal cases amounting to felony on questions of law alone. The state is divided into fourteen judicial districts, in each of which there is a district court. The term of office for the Justices of the Supreme Court is ten years; for the Judges of the District Courts, six years, and for Judges of the County Courts, four years.

Colorado.

21.—This state was admitted to the Union in 1875. It has an area of 104,500 square miles, and the surface is varied, sometimes mountainous, in other places level,

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and in others broken and uneven. The climate is favorable. Stock raising is a profitable industry.

22. — Mining operations date as far back as 1858, when gold was taken from placers near the site where now stands the city of Denver. Afterward followed the discovery of the rich deposits of gold, silver, copper, lead and zinc in various portions of the mountain region. Mining is now chiefly carried on in the counties of Gilpin, Park, Clear Creek, Summit, Lake and Boulder. Gold is mostly found intermixed with silver, and silver with copper and lead. The value of precious minerals, obtained during 1870, has been estimated at about \$4,000,000, of which \$1,500,000 were yielded by the placers, and the remainder by quartz veins. The census reports the value at only \$859,374. Copper pyrites occur in the gold and silver mining districts, and silver-bearing galena (lead) is also found. Coal beds have been discovered in the mountainous districts and in the parks, and will doubtless aid materially in the development of the mining and industrial interests. Salt occurs near Fair Play in South Park, but the cost of furnace evaporation has been found too great to leave a profit. In several localities, however, dry and comparatively pure salt is found. Mineral springs are very abundant in the territory, particularly such as contain sulphur. Those in the Middle Park range in temperature from 100° to 116° Fahr., and are found to be efficacious in rheumatic and scrofulous diseases. In the San Juan Mountains, not far from the southern boundary of the territory, is the Pagora Spring, which has a temperature of 200°, and is reported to possess great curative power. Another large sulphur spring is situated near the Raton Pass, to the east of the San Luis Park.

23. — The constitution of Colorado was framed by a convention, on August 12, 1865, and adopted by the people September 5 of the same year. The capital was formerly at Golden City, but is now at Denver. The legislature consists of a council of 13 members,

and a house of representatives of 26 members. The general election is on the first Tuesday of October.

Connecticut.

24.—This, one of the thirteen original states, derives its name from an Indian word meaning long river. It was first settled at Windsor, by the English, in 1633. It was admitted into the Union in 1788. It has an area of 4,674 square miles. The surface is pleasantly diversified by hills and valleys, but there are no lofty mountains. Among the mineral treasures of Connecticut, building stone is foremost. White marble is also quite abundant. Granite is largely shipped from the coast to New York and other places. There are valuable copper mines near Bristol, and, in the vicinity of Middletown, lead is found, though not in paying quantities.

25.—The climate of Connecticut is similar to that of its sister New England states, being marked by extremes of heat and cold and sudden changes. The population was formerly almost exclusively of English blood, but, during late years, the Irish have come in largely. The higher portions of the surface are well adapted to stock raising, hence cattle, butter and cheese constitute the principal articles of export. The extensive, rich valleys produce the grains usually grown in the Temperate Zones, in great abundance. The cultivation of tobacco has been successfully carried on for many years, and is becoming more profitable every year. In proportion to the population, Connecticut is one of the foremost manufacturing states in the Union, the great majority of the inhabitants being directly or indirectly interested in some branch of manufacturing.

26.—The schools of Connecticut enjoy a well-earned popularity. There are three colleges in the state: Yale College, at New Haven; Trinity College, at Hartford (Episcopal), and the Wesleyan University, at Middletown (Methodist). With Yale College there are connected a theological seminary, a law school, a

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27.—The government of the state is about the same as that of the other New England states. The governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary of state and controller are chosen annually and hold office from the first Wednesday in May. The senate consists of twenty-one members, chosen by districts; the house of representatives of 237 members. The senators and representatives are chosen annually. The commissioner of the school fund is appointed by the legislature. Every male citizen of the United States, who shall have attained the age of twenty-one years, who shall have resided one year in the state, and six months in the town where he offers to vote, and who is able to read any article of the constitution, is entitled to the privileges of an elector, upon taking the oath prescribed by law. The supreme court of errors consists of one chief judge and three associate judges, who also are judges of the superior court. This court has final and conclusive jurisdiction of all matters brought by way of error from the judgment or decrees of any superior court. The superior court consists of six judges, exclusive of those who are judges of the supreme court. It has jurisdiction of all causes which may be brought before it. The judges of both courts are appointed by concurrent

vote of the senate and house of representatives, and hold office for eight years, but are disqualified when seventy years of age.

Delaware.

28.— Delaware is one of the original "Thirteen." It received its name in honor of Lord Delaware. The territory embraced within its boundaries was first settled in 1638 by the Swedes at Wilmington, and has an area of 2,120 square miles. In 1655 it became a dependency of the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam, and together with this colony fell into the hands of the English in 1664. In 1682 the English government made it a part of the William Penn grant; but in 1701 it was separated from Pennsylvania, though subject to the same governor down to the war of independence.

29.— Delaware occupies the northeastern portion of the peninsula which separates Delaware Bay from Chesapeake Bay, and which forms a plain of but little elevation above the sea level. Through the center of this peninsula extends from north to south a broad swell of ground, somewhat higher than the sea coast, covered with swampy tracts, from which the small streams issue. Delaware includes a portion of this higher ground and thus forms a plain gently inclining from the west to the shores of the Delaware Bay on the east.

30.— The climate of Delaware is mild, being tempered by the nearness of the ocean. Agriculture is profitably pursued and the industries of the state are in good condition. The manufacturing interest is of great importance, there being over 800 establishments in the state.

31.— The educational interests of Delaware are very prosperous. The state has three colleges. Delaware College, located at Newark, has a scientific department and an agricultural college. St. Mary's College is at Wilmington, and Brandywine College at Brandywine.

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32.—The government is similar to that of other states. The governor is elected by the people for a term of four years, and he appoints the secretary of state and the attorney general. The treasurer and auditor are elected by the legislature for two years. The senate consists of nine members and the house of twenty-one, elected for two years. The judicial power is vested in a court of errors and appeals, a supreme court, a court of chancery, an orphans' court, a court of oyer and terminer, a register's court and justices of the peace. Dover is the capital.

Florida.

33.—Florida is derived from a Spanish word meaning blooming. The state was first settled at St. Augustine, by the Spaniards, in 1565. It has an area of 50,268 square miles, including the peninsula, which extends into the Atlantic from the North American Continent on the southeast. The surface is flat and quite low. The climate is of a tropical character. The winter is comparatively dry, and is equable and bracing. Indeed, the winter months in Florida offer, generally, such delightful and healthful weather that the state is visited annually by many thousands of northern visitors in search of pleasure and health. The vegetation of the peninsula is varied. The low saw palmetto and tall and graceful cabbage palm (both species of *chamærops*); the Spanish moss, trailing from the mighty limbs of the live oak and cypress; the mangrove, clothing and concealing with its dense growth the shore islands, and the groves of wild orange trees, strongly arrest the attention of the visitor from the north. The dry sandy tracts are occupied by forests of red pine, while the interior limestone ridge produces hickory, white oak, gum and other hard woods. The animal life is abundant. The manatee or sea cow was formerly frequent, but is now almost extinct. Alligators are numerous. Deer, bears, panthers and wild turkeys abound. Paroquets, curlews, and other birds of brilliant plumage enrich the

woods and waters. The mullet, river trout, pompano and other excellent fish swarm in the rivers and lagoons. The green turtle is caught on the sea shores, and the gopher in the interior. Scorpions, centipedes, stinging insects and venomous snakes are also not rare, but serious accidents from them are infrequent.

34. — The chief product of the soil is corn and cotton. Manufacturing has gained considerable headway, and the commercial interests of the state are in a fair degree of prosperity.

35. — The government of the state has some interesting features. The new state constitution was adopted in February, 1868. It provides that slavery shall not exist in the state; that there shall be no civil or political distinction on account of color, and that the state shall ever remain a member of the American Union. The Governor and Lieutenant Governor are chosen by the qualified electors, and hold their offices for four years. The Secretary of State, Treasurer, Comptroller, Attorney General, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Commissioner of Immigration and Adjutant General are appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the senate.

36. — The members of the assembly, 53 in number, are chosen biennially, and the 24 senators for a term of four years. The sessions of the Legislature are annually held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in January, and may extend to sixty days. Special sessions convened by the Governor cannot sit over twenty days. Every male of twenty-one years of age and over, who is a citizen of the United States, or who shall have declared his intention of becoming such, and who shall have resided in Florida for one year and in the county for six months, next preceding the election at which he shall offer to vote, shall be deemed a qualified elector.

37. — The judicial power of the state is vested in a Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, County Courts and justices of the peace. The Supreme Court consists of

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a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices, who hold their offices for life or during good behavior. They are appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the senate. The Supreme Court holds three sessions annually at the state capitol. It has appellate jurisdiction. There are seven Circuit Judges, appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the senate, who hold their offices for eight years, and the state is divided into seven judicial districts. The judge must reside in the district to which he is assigned. The Circuit Courts have original jurisdiction in all cases in which the Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction, and they have final jurisdiction in all civil cases arising in the county courts in which the amount of controversy is \$100 and more, and in all cases of misdemeanor. The County Judges are also appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the senate, and each judge holds his office for four years.

Georgia.

38.—The state of Georgia was named in honor of George II, and was first settled at Savannah, by the English, in 1733. It is one of the thirteen original states, and was admitted to the Union in 1788. The surface of the state has an area of 58,000 square miles, and is level, or but slightly undulating in some parts and mountainous in others. The difference in height above the level of the sea, and in latitude, produces a difference in temperature. In some parts of the state the summer is very hot, while in others it is healthful and invigorating.

39.—Iron and copper occur in quite large quantities, and gold is found in limited quantities, and before the discovery of gold in California, was considered of considerable importance. Agriculture is by far the most important branch of industry in the state. The soil is very productive, and the cotton product is nearly always large. Before the war, Georgia had made considerable progress in manufacturing. This branch of industry has started up again vigorously

since the war. Local commerce in Georgia is increasing, but direct foreign commerce is small.

40.—Georgia records three Universities: the State University, at Athens; Oglethorpe University (Presbyterian), at Milledgeville, and Mercer University (Baptist), at Renfield, with 18 teachers and 379 pupils. The 28 colleges and 123 academies have respectively 133 and 226 teachers, with 2,583 and 6,550 pupils.

41.—The government of Georgia has been well reconstructed. The new constitution was adopted in convention in March, 1868, and ratified by the people in the next month. It declares all citizens of the United States residing in the state to be citizens thereof. The Governor is chosen by the people for four years; and for the same period are elected by the General Assembly the following officers: the Secretary of State, Comptroller General, Treasurer and Surveyor General. The Senate consists of 44 members, one-half elected biennially for four years, and the House of Representatives, elected biennially for two years. The Judiciary of the state comprises a Supreme Court, a Superior Court for each judicial district, Courts in Ordinary and Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction only. The Superior Courts have exclusive jurisdiction in cases of divorce, in criminal cases, where the penalty is death or confinement in the penitentiary, in cases respecting titles to land, and in equity cases. They have also power to correct errors in inferior judgments, and to issue writs that may be necessary for carrying into effect their powers. The Judges of the Supreme and Superior Courts, the Attorney General, Solicitor General and the District Judges and Attorneys are appointed by the Governor with the advice and consent of the Senate.

Illinois.

42.—The name is derived from an Indian word meaning River of Men. The state was first settled at Kaskaskia by the French, in 1702, and in 1819 the

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state was admitted to the Union. The surface, with an area of 55,405 square miles, is a plain, gently sloping from the northeast towards the Mississippi. The climate is marked by great extremes. The summers are very warm and the winters very cold. Large portions of the surface consist of prairie. Coal abounds in large quantities and is worked with great profit. Copper, limestone, etc., are also found. The state surpasses any other commonwealth in the Union in the fertility of its soil. Some of the prairies are bottom lands and are said to be overlaid by loam from 25 to 100 feet thick. Illinois is also a manufacturing state, having over \$205,000,000 employed in that industry. The state is favorably situated for commerce, and is prosperous in a large degree in all her commercial industries.

43.—The School System of Illinois is excellent. In 1870 there were 11,050 public schools, with 20,097 teachers (8,791 male, and 11,306 female), and 677,623 pupils. "The total income of these schools was \$7,810,265, mostly raised by taxation and public funds. The eighty classical, professional and technical schools had 371 teachers and 11,755 pupils, and the 705 other not public schools, 3,388 teachers and 78,397 pupils. The six universities had 56 teachers and 1,277 students, including 148 females. The State Industrial University, founded by act of the legislature in 1867, and located in Champaign county, was opened in 1868. It has over 1,000 acres of improved farming lands, 40 acres of which have been set apart for gardens, nurseries and specimen orchards. The remainder is to be used for experimental and stock farms. The course of this institution is science, literature and arts. Neither the classical nor modern languages are taught. The State Normal University was opened in October, 1857, near the city of Bloomington, and is in a prosperous condition."

44.—The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, and Superintendent

of Public Instruction, are elected by the people for four years. The general election is held on the first Tuesday in November. The Senate consists of fifty-one members, elected for four years; the House of Representatives of one hundred and fifty-three members, elected for two years. The Legislature meets biennially on the first Monday in January in the odd years, 1871, 1873, etc. The Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction only, and consists of three divisions, corresponding to the three divisions of the state. There are twenty-eight Circuit Courts. Each county has a County Court. The State Capital is at Springfield. Chicago is the metropolis of the state, and there are forty-two incorporated cities in the state.

Indiana.

45. — The State was first settled by the French at Vincennes, in 1716. The area exceeds 33,809 square miles, and the surface is gently undulating, but not mountainous. Agriculture is the principal pursuit, and manufacturing has gained much headway.

46. — Indiana has the largest school fund of any state in the Union. The State has six Universities. These are the State University at Bloomington, Monroe county; was opened in 1840, and comprises a college of arts, literature and science, a college of law, a college of engineering, a college of military science and a normal school. The libraries embrace over 5,000 volumes, and the philosophical and chemical apparatus is very complete. The faculty consists of the President, ten Professors and two Tutors; the number of students was, in 1870, 304. Indiana Asbury University, located at Greencastle, Putnam county, is under the control of the Methodists. Wabash College, with which a military department is connected, is at Crawfordsville; Earlham College, near Richmond; the University of Notre Dame, at Notre Dame; Salem College, at Bourbon; Fort Wayne College and Concordia College, at Fort Wayne. In 1870, there were in the state 8,871 public schools (including 69 high and 371 graded schools), with 11,042 teachers.

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47.—The government of the state of Indiana dif-
fers from that of other states, in some respects. "The
Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State,
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tendent of Public Instruction, are chosen by the peo-
ple at the general election, held on the second Tues-
day of October. The Governor and Lieutenant Gov-
ernor hold office four years; the others two years.
The Legislature meets biennially in the month of
January, in the odd years of 1873, 1875, etc., and
comprises a Senate of 50 members, and a House of
Representatives of 98 members. The judiciary con-
sists of a Supreme Court, Circuit Courts and a Court
of Common Pleas. The Supreme Court is composed
of four judges, chosen by the people for seven years;
the judges of the Circuit Courts are elected for six
years, and those of the Court of Common Pleas for
four years."

Iowa.

48.—The name *Iowa* comes from an Indian term,
meaning drowsy ones. The state was first settled at
Burlington by the English in 1833, and was admitted
to the Union in 1846. The territory within the limits
of the state has an area of 50,914 square miles. It
forms a part of a vast plain, and there are no moun-
tains or ranges of hills within the state. The climate
is free from injurious extremes, its general character
being a salubrious dryness. Agriculture is the princi-
pal pursuit, and manufacturing is progressing rapidly.

49.—Iowa justly boasts a grand school system.
The State University at Iowa City has an endowment
in land and other property of \$195,582, and worthily
occupies its place at the head of the school system of
the state. It had, in 1870, 25 teachers and 455 stu-
dents, including 178 females, and embraced academic-
al, law, medical and normal departments. The Agri-
cultural College at Ames, Storey county, has an im-
posing building, located on a fine farm of 648 acres, and
contains a library, museum, cabinet of minerals, etc.

50. — The Government of the state of Iowa does not differ in any great particular from that of other states. The Governor, Lieutenant Governor and Superintendent of Public Instruction are elected in each odd year for a term of two years. The Register of the Land Office, Secretary of State, Auditor and Treasurer, are elected in each even year, for the same length of service. The Senators, forty-nine in number, are chosen for four years; one-half being elected biennially. The House of Representatives consists of two hundred members, who are elected for two years. Every male citizen who has been a resident of the state for six months, and of the county in which he offers to vote, sixty days, is a legal elector. The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court twelve district courts, and such courts as the general assembly may establish. The Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction only, and consists of four judges, elected by the people for six years. It exercises supervisory control over the inferior judicial tribunals. The District Courts have original jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases, in chancery and at common law. In 1868, the assembly established twenty-four circuits, in each of which a circuit judge is elected for four years.

Kansas.

51. — The name "Kansas" comes from an Indian term meaning Smoky Water. The state was admitted to the Union in 1861. The surface has an area of 78,418 square miles and is mostly devoid of forests. Agriculture is the principal industry.

52. — The Educational Interests of the State of Kansas are now in a very prosperous and efficient condition. The state has five universities. The State University at Lawrence was organized in 1864, and embraces a collegiate and a preparatory course. It has a splendid building, on a hill called Mount Oread, and is admirably provided with all the appliances required for the most advanced methods of instruction.

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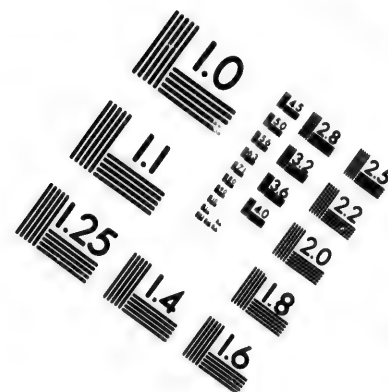
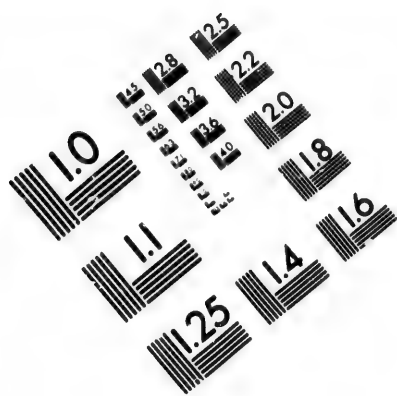
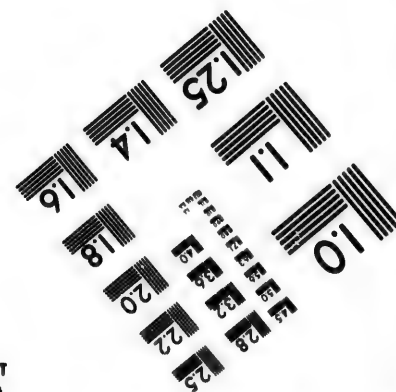
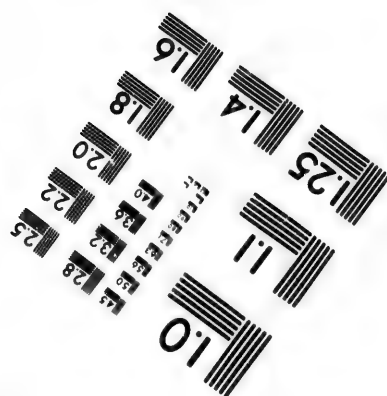
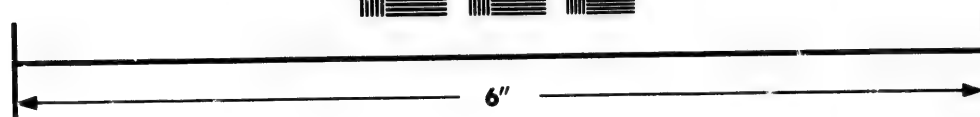
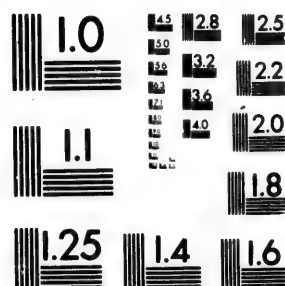


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Professorships of drawing and practical chemistry have lately been added to the faculty. The library and the collection of apparatus are increasing rapidly. In 1870, it had nine professors and 213 students. The Ottawa University was organized in 1860 by the Baptist church of the state; Lane University, at Leocompton, in 1859; Baker University, at Baldwin City, in 1858; and Highland University, at Highland, in 1859. The census reports eleven classical institutions, with sixty-three teachers and 904 pupils, and four technical schools, inclusive of the State Agricultural School at Manhattan, which has an endowment of 90,000 acres, has ten instructors, 194 pupils, and a library of 3,000 volumes. Kansas had, according to the census, 2,068 organized school districts, with 1,663 public schools, having 1,864 teachers, and 58,030 pupils. The number of persons between five and twenty-one years of age was 109,242. The charitable institutions already established are in successful operation. The Asylum for the Insane is at Osawatomie, the Asylum for the Blind at Wyandotte City, and the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Olathe.

53.—The Government of the state of Kansas is much the same as that of the other states. The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, Superintendent of Public Instruction and Attorney General, are elected for a term of two years. The Senate is composed of twenty-five members, elected for two years, and the House of Representatives of seventy-five members, elected for one year. The Legislature meets annually on the second Tuesday in January. Male citizens of the United States, or persons of foreign birth, who shall have declared their intention to become citizens, are entitled to vote after having resided six months in the state and thirty days in the township. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices, who are elected for six years. The state is divided into nine

judicial districts, in each of which a District Court is held, the judges of which are elected for four years.

Kentucky.

54. — The name Kentucky is derived from an Indian word meaning "dark or bloody ground." The state was first settled in 1775 at Boonesboro by the English. The surface has an area of 37,680 square miles, and is quite broken or undulating. The climate is mild and agreeable. Kentucky is abundantly supplied with productive coal beds and iron deposits. Agriculture is the principal pursuit, and manufacturing is pursued with profit.

55. — Education is now receiving earnest attention by the citizens of the state, and the school system is very efficient. The most important of the higher institutions of learning is the Kentucky University, with which is connected the Agricultural College.

56. — The government consists of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Auditor, Attorney-General and Superintendent of Public Instruction, elected by the people for a term of four years. The Governor is ineligible for the four years succeeding the expiration of his term. If a vacancy occur in the office of Governor during the first two years of the term, it is filled by a new election; and if it occur during the last two years, the Lieutenant-Governor, and after him the Speaker of the House, becomes acting Governor. The Treasurer is elected for a term of two years. The Secretary of State is appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice of the Senate. The Senate comprises 38 members, who are chosen for four years, one-half biennially. The members of the House of Representatives, numbering 100, are elected for two years. The sessions of the legislature are biennial, and cannot continue longer than sixty days, without a two-thirds vote of the members of each branch. Every male citizen who has resided two years in the state, one year in the county, and sixty days in the precinct in which he offers his vote, is a legal elector.

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57.—The highest judicial tribunal of the state is the Court of Appeals, which has appellate jurisdiction over the final orders and judgments of all other courts in civil cases, where the amount in controversy exceeds \$50; or in cases of judgment granting divorce, or on a judgment of an inferior court from which an appeal is given to the Circuit Court. The Circuit Courts have original jurisdiction in cases where the amount in controversy exceeds \$50; appellate jurisdiction in certain specified cases, and criminal jurisdiction for the trial of all offenses which may be prosecuted by indictment, and all prosecutions and final actions, except where exclusive jurisdiction is given to other courts. There are also county courts and justices of the peace. Judges of the Court of Appeals are elected for terms of eight years, one every second year, and the Judge having the shortest term to serve is Chief Justice. The Judges of the Circuit Courts are elected for six years, and the Justices of the Peace for four years.

Louisiana.

58.—This state takes its name in honor of Louis XIV. It was first settled by the French at Biloxi, in 1699, and was admitted to the Union in 1812. The surface throughout is a low, alluvial plain. The climate is warm, but with colder and more variable winters than the regions in the same latitude on the Atlantic coast.

59.—The vegetation is luxuriant, oranges, sugar-cane, bananas, and other tropical productions being raised. The cypress, cedar and yellow pine are among the principal trees. The lagoons abound in alligators, turtles and fish, while serpents and insects are numerous in the swamps. The soil of Louisiana, in the river "bottoms," is good, and corn culture is profitable. Manufacturing is carried on to a very limited extent.

60.—Education is beginning to take a deeper hold of the people, and the school system is improving. The Louisiana State University, located at Baton

Rouge, was organized in 1860, and had, in 1870, 185 students (here called cadets). Straight University, at New Orleans, is making steady progress, and gives promise of extended usefulness in the future. Union Normal School, also at New Orleans, is sustained by the Methodists.

61.—The government consists of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, Superintendent of Education and Attorney-General, chosen for the term of four years. The Senate is composed of 36 members, who are elected for four years (one-half biennially). The House of Representatives consists of 101 members. The constitution provides that it shall not exceed 120 members and not be less than 90. Every male person of the age of twenty-one years and upward, and born or naturalized in the United States, and a resident of the state one year next preceding an election, and the last ten days within the parish in which he offers to vote, shall be deemed an elector.

62.—The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, Parish Courts and Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction only, and is composed of a Chief Justice and four Associate Justices. The justices of this court are appointed by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Senate, for eight years. The Supreme Court holds its sessions at New Orleans from the first Monday of November to the end of May. The state is divided into twelve districts, in each of which is one district court, except the district of New Orleans, which has seven. These courts have unlimited jurisdiction in criminal cases; original jurisdiction in all cases in which the amount in dispute exceeds \$500, and appellate jurisdiction in cases in which the amount in dispute exceeds \$100.

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63.—The state was first settled at Bristol by the French in 1625. It has an area of 31,766 square

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mate is salubrious; the winters are long and fre-
quently severe, but free from sudden changes; the
summers are pleasant but short. Maine is one of the
best timbered states of the Union. There are no val-
uable minerals, but slate, suitable for roofing and
schools, is found in the northern part of the state.
Agriculture is pursued with great profit, and manufac-
turing has become an immense interest.

64.— Education holds a high place in the enter-
prises of the state. There are two normal schools for
the training of teachers. The Eastern, at Castine,
was opened in 1867; the Western, at Farmington, in
1864. The number of academies and private semi-
naries is nearly seventy. The four colleges of Maine
had, in 1871, 281 students. Bowdoin College, the
oldest of these institutions, was organized in 1802,
and is located at Brunswick. The State College of
Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts was established in
1868, and had, in 1871, 71 students.

65.— Maine was a part of Massachusetts until
1820. By an act of Congress approved on the 3d of
March, 1820, it was declared that on and after the
15th of March, of the same year, the state of Maine
should be admitted into the Union on equal terms
with original states. The constitution provides that
every male citizen of the United States, of the age of
twenty-one years and upward, excepting paupers, per-
sons under guardianship, and Indians not taxed, hav-
ing his residence established in the state for the term
of three months next preceding an election, shall be
an elector for Governor, Senators and Representatives
in the town or plantation where his residence is estab-
lished. The legislative power is vested in the House
of Representatives and a Senate. The House of Rep-
resentatives shall consist of not less than 100 nor
more than 200 members, to be elected for one year.
The Senate shall consist of not less than twenty nor
more than thirty-one members, to be elected also for

one year. The Legislature shall convene on the first Wednesday of January, annually.

66.—The Governor shall be elected by the qualified electors, and shall hold his office one year, from the first Wednesday of January. He shall be not less than thirty years of age, a born citizen of the United States, and have been five years a resident of the state. He shall nominate and, with the advice and consent of the Council, appoint all judicial officers, the Attorneys General, the Sheriffs, Coroners, Registers of Probate, Notaries Public, and all other civil and military officers whose appointment is not otherwise provided for. The Council shall consist of seven persons, citizens of the United States, and residents of the state, to advise the Governor in the Executive part of the government. The Councilors shall be chosen annually by joint ballot of the Senators and Representatives in convention. The Secretary of State and the Treasurer shall be chosen annually, at the first session of the Legislature, by the Senators and Representatives in convention.

67.—The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Judicial Court, and such other courts as the Legislature shall, from time to time, establish. All judicial officers hold their offices for the term of seven years. Judges and Registers of Probate shall be elected by the people of their respective counties, and hold their offices for four years. Judges of municipal and police courts shall be elected by the people of their respective cities or towns, and hold their offices for four years.

Maryland.

68.—This state received its name in honor of Queen Henrietta Maria. It was first settled in 1634, at St. Mary's, by the English. The surface has an area of 9,356 square miles, and is undulating or level. A large number of creeks penetrate far into the interior, all of which have wide estuaries. The climate, tempered by the Atlantic and Chesapeake Bay, is mild and salubrious.

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69.—The chief mineral wealth of Maryland consists in bituminous coal and iron. The western portion of the state extends into the great Appalachian coal field, and is very productive. Iron ore is obtained in paying quantities. The soil is very productive, and agriculture is a paying industry; manufacturing is also an important industry. Education flourishes.

70.—The government is securely adjusted. Every male citizen of the United States, of the age of 21 years and upward, who has resided in the state one year, and in the legislative district or county in which he offers to vote, for six months, is entitled to vote. The executive power is vested in the Governor, who is chosen by the electors for four years. The Secretary of State, Commissioner of the Land Office, Adjutant General and State Librarian, are appointed by the Governor by and with the consent of the Senate. The treasury department is administered by a Comptroller chosen by the voters, and a Treasurer appointed by the Legislature. Both hold office for two years. The Attorney General and the Superintendent of Labor and Agriculture are chosen in the same manner as the Governor, and hold office for the same term of four years. The Legislature consists of a Senate of twenty-four members and a House of Delegates of eighty-six members. Senators are elected for four years; delegates for two. The judicial power is vested in a Court of Appeals, Circuit Courts of the counties, the several courts of Baltimore city, Orphans' Courts, and Justices of the Peace. The Court of Appeals is composed of the Chief Judges of the first seven of the several judicial circuits of the state, and a judge from the city of Baltimore. The Chief Judge is designated by the Governor by and with the advice of the Senate.

Massachusetts.

71. The state was first settled at Plymouth, in 1620, by the English. The surface has an area of 7,800 square miles, and is greatly diversified. Two chains

of Green Mountains traverse the western part of the state. The southwestern part of the state is low and sandy. The climate is cool. The winters are long and quite severe, the summers short and warm; agriculture and manufacturing are the principal industries. The state has a grand and complete system of railroads, and commerce flourishes.

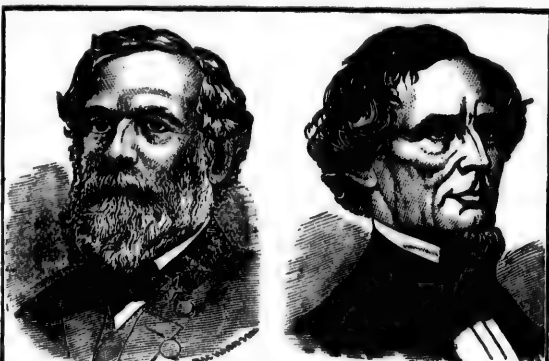
72. — The state has established educational institutions of all grades, and maintains them with great liberality. The Board of Education consists of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and eight members appointed by the Governor and Council. It has the general oversight of the public schools and educational statistics, and receives the reports which the persons in charge of every institution of learning in the state are required by law to make. The number of incorporated academies is 50, and of private schools about 500. The six colleges had, in 1870, 137 teachers and 1,290 pupils. Harvard University, at Cambridge, the oldest college in the country, has 76 professors and nearly 1,200 students.

73. — The state includes the original colonies of Plymouth (settled in 1620), and Massachusetts Bay, (settled at Salem in 1628). In 1688, the colonies were united under one government. Massachusetts adopted a constitution in 1780, and ratified the Constitution of the United States in 1788. The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor and Attorney General are chosen annually in November, and hold office one year from the first Wednesday in January. A council, consisting of nine persons besides the Lieutenant Governor, has the function to advise the Governor in the performance of his executive duties. The Senate consists of 40 members, no less than 16 of whom form a quorum, and the House of Representatives consists of 240 members, no less than 100 of whom form a quorum. Every male citizen 21 years of age, able to read the Constitution and to write his name, who has resided in the state one year, and in his election district six months, and has paid a

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tax within two years, is entitled to vote. The Supreme Judicial Court consists of one Chief Justice and five Associate Justices. It has exclusive cognizance of all capital crimes, and exclusive chancery jurisdiction and concurrent original jurisdiction of all civil cases, where the amount in dispute exceeds \$4,000 in Suffolk county, and \$1,000 in the other counties. The Superior Court consists of a Chief Justice and nine Associate Justices. It has civil jurisdiction in all cases where the amount in controversy exceeds \$20, and criminal jurisdiction in all except capital crimes. The judges of both courts are appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice of the Senate, and hold their offices during good behavior.

Michigan.

74.—The state derives its name from an Indian term, meaning Great Lake. It was first settled by the French at Detroit in 1701. The surface has an area of 52,198 square miles. Agriculture is the principal industry. Manufacturing is progressing, and commerce is in a healthy condition.

75.—Michigan has distinguished herself by her liberality in educational enterprises. The State University at Ann Arbor is the largest college west of the Alleghany mountains, and ranks with the foremost institutions of its kind in the country. In 1870, it had 1,126 students and thirty-four professors. The numbers of students in the department of science, literature, and the arts, was 477; in that of medicine and surgery, 340; and in that of law, 309. The university admits lady students. The Agricultural College, located at Lansing, was established in 1863, and has an endowment of 240,000. It had, in 1870, seven professors and 142 students. The three other colleges of Michigan are at Kalamazoo, Albion and Olivet. The State Normal school, at Ypsilanti, was opened in 1854, and embraces a training course and a higher course. In the Experimental School, the pupils of the Normal School practice actual teaching.

76.—The state of Michigan was admitted as a state into the Union, in 1837. The following officers are chosen biennially, by popular vote: Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor General, Superintendent of Public Instruction and Adjutant General. The legislature meets biennially, in the odd years, and consists of a Senate of thirty-two members, and a House of Representatives of one hundred members. The qualifications to vote are: He must be above the age of twenty-one years; must have resided in the state three months, and in his election district ten days. The judicial power is vested in one Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, Probate courts and justices of the peace. The Supreme Court has superintending control over all inferior courts, and consist of four judges, who are chosen by the voters for eight years, one judge retiring every second year, unless reelected. The judges of the circuit court are chosen for six years.

Minnesota.

77.—The state derives its name from an Indian term meaning cloudy water. It was first settled by the Americans, at St. Paul in 1846, and was admitted to the Union in 1858. The surface has an area of 95,274 square miles. Agriculture and manufacturing are the principal industries.

78.—The legislature of Minnesota, in 1851, provided for the establishment of the University of Minnesota, and in 1854, the building was begun on an eminence commanding a view of the Falls of St. Anthony. After many struggles, the institution is now in full operation, with a classical, agricultural and military establishment. It has 11 professors and 371 students. Three Normal Schools are in operation: the first at Winona, the second at Mankato, and the third at St. Cloud. The attendance was, in 1871, 498 students. An excellent system of public schools has been established in the state.

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1857. "The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secre-
tary of State, Treasurer and Attorney General are
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years. The Senate consists of 22 members, chosen for
two years, one half each year; and the House of Repre-
sentatives comprises 47 members, who are elected annu-
ally. The legislature meets annually in the month of
January. Citizens of the United States, who have re-
sided four months in the state and ten days next preced-
ing an election in the district, are legal voters. The
judiciary comprises a Supreme Court, District Courts,
Courts of Probate and justices of the peace. The Su-
preme Court has original jurisdiction in such remedial
cases as are prescribed by law, and appellate jurisdic-
tion in all cases, both in law and in equity. It con-
sists of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices,
who are elected for seven years. There are six district
court judges, who are elected in single districts for
seven years. The District Courts have original juris-
diction in all cases of law and equity where over \$100
are in controversy, and in criminal cases where the
punishment may be imprisonment for over three
months, or a fine of over \$100.

Mississippi.

80. — The state derives its name from an Indian
term, meaning Great Father of Waters. It was first
settled at Natchez, by the French, in 1716, and was
admitted as a state in 1817. The surface has an area
of 47,156 square miles, and is quite undulating. The
climate is warm, the summers are long and hot; the
winters short and mild, the soil is fertile and the vege-
tation luxuriant, hence agricultural pursuits are profit-
able.

81. — Education is now making progress. The
State Normal School is located at Holly Springs, and
admits none but those intending to become teachers.
Tougaloo University, situated seven miles north of
Jackson, is in successful operation under the manage-
ment of the American Missionary Association. The

College at Pass Christian, Harrison county, was organized in 1866, and includes a preparatory, collegiate and commercial department. Mississippi College, at Clinton, Hinds county, commenced in 1868, with two college and nine preparatory students, but is now attended by 150. It has been adopted by the Baptists of Arkansas as their state institution. The University of Mississippi is located at Oxford, La Fayette county, and comprises three general departments; a department of preparatory education, a department of science, literature and the arts, and a department of professional education.

82. — The region now comprised in Mississippi was first visited in 1540 by De Soto, a Spanish soldier of fortune. The settlement at Fort Rosalie (now Natchez), in 1716, by a party of Frenchmen under Bienville, was the first permanent colony. At the peace of Paris, in 1763, Mississippi became part of the English territory. In 1798, Mississippi including Alabama was erected into a territory, and in 1817 was admitted as a state into the Union. The present constitution, adopted by the convention in 1868, provides that all male inhabitants who are citizens of the United States, twenty-one years of age and over, who have resided in the state six months, and in the county one month next preceding the day of election, are qualified electors. The House of Representatives consists of 107 members, chosen every second year by the qualified electors. The Senate consists of 33 members chosen every four years.

83. — The Governor and Lieutenant Governor are elected by the qualified electors, and hold their offices for four years. They must be at least thirty years of age, must have been citizens of the United States twenty years, and must have resided in the state two years next preceding the day of election. The Secretary of State, Attorney General, Treasurer and Auditor of Public Accounts are also elected for four years, and must be at least twenty-five years of age. A

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are elected in each county for two years. The judicial
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three judges, who are appointed by the Governor, by
and with the advice of the Senate, for 9 years. The
judges of the Circuit Court are appointed for six years
and those of Chancery Courts for four years.

Missouri.

84.—The state takes its name from an Indian
term meaning muddy water. It was first settled by the
French at St. Genevieve in 1755, and was admitted in-
to the Union in 1821. The surface has an area of
67,380 square miles and is nearly level, some parts
being rough and broken. The climate is subject to
great extremes. The summers are long and very hot,
and the winters very cold.

85.—The mineral of Missouri is as great as that of
any equal area on the globe, and its productions are
distinguished not only for their immense quantity, but
also for their excellence and purity. The coal depos-
its of northern Missouri are a portion of the great Iowa
field, and within the limits of the state measure 62,887
square miles. Prof. G. C. Swallow, the state geolog-
ist, estimates the amount of available coal at 134,435
billions of tons. The smaller coal areas in other parts
of the state, compared with this vast amount, are but
of local importance. The iron deposits of Missouri are
perhaps surpassed in extent by those of Michigan and
Pennsylvania; but in neither of those states are such
vast quantities of almost pure metal so near the surface
or even upon it as here. Iron Mountain in St. Fran-
cois county is 228 feet high, covers an area of 500
acres, and its contents, of the finest ore, have been
estimated at 16,555 millions of cubic feet, or 230,187,-
075 tons. Pilot Knob, in Iron county, is 581 feet
high (or 1,490 feet above the sea), and covers an area
of 360 acres. Magnetic iron, interspersed with specu-
lar iron, is found in immense quantities on Mt. Shep-
perd, near Pilot Knob. Lead is, next to coal and iron,

the most important mineral production of Missouri, and is found in great abundance and of good quality. The soil of Missouri is excellent, and agriculture affords a large profit. Manufacturing has gained considerable headway, and commerce is very extensive.

86. — Missouri provides good schools. The higher educational institutions of the state were the State University, at Columbia, with which an agricultural college is connected; the Mining School, at Rolla; three Normal Schools, at St. Louis, Kirksville and Warrensburgh; the Lincoln Institute, at Jefferson City, a seminary for colored teachers; 19 colleges, 33 seminaries and 92 high schools. All state educational institutions are strictly non-sectarian.

87. — There are also numerous institutions not controlled by the state, the most prominent of which is the Washington University, at St. Louis, with an endowment of \$700,000. The following institutions are controlled by Roman Catholics: St. Vincent's Seminary, at Cape Girardeau; St. Louis University, at St. Louis; Stanislaus Seminary, at Florissant; the colleges at St. Louis and Hannibal; the College of Christian Brothers, at St. Louis. They also have 9 female schools, 23 parochial schools and 50 elementary schools. The Lutheran institutions are the Concordia Seminary and an academy at St. Louis, a higher female school at St. Joseph, and about 50 parochial schools.

88. — A new constitution was adopted by a convention in April, 1865, and ratified by the people in June; but has since then been modified by several amendments. The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, Auditor, Register of Lands, Attorney General and Superintendent of Public Schools are elected for a term of two years, on the first Tuesday after the first Monday of November, in the even years, 1872, 1874, etc. The Senate comprises 34 members, elected for four years, one-half bien-

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Nebraska.

91.—Nebraska was organized as a territory in May, 1854. A constitution was framed by the state convention and ratified by the people in 1866, and in January, 1867, Nebraska was admitted into the Union as a state. The executive power is vested in a Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer and Auditor. These officers are elected for two years, except the Auditor, who is elected for four years. The legislature consists of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The former has thirteen members,

the latter twenty-nine members. All male citizens of the United States, who have resided six months in the state, and ten days in the district in which they offer to vote, are legal electors. The Judiciary comprises a Supreme Court, District Courts, Probate Courts, and Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and Two Associate Justices, elected for a period of six years. The state is divided into three judicial districts, in each of which one of the Supreme Court Justices holds district court sessions.

Nevada.

92. — This state takes its name from a Spanish word meaning snow covered. It was admitted into the Union in 1864. The surface has an area of 112,000 square miles, and embraces the great plain lying between the Sierra Nevada and the Wahsatch Mountains, and known to geographers as the Great Basin. The climate is characterized by great extremes — cold winters and hot summers, and by a very dry atmosphere, with but little rain or snow.

93. — Nevada is a prominent mining state. In 1872, it produced nearly one-half of all the bullion produced west of the Missouri River. The state then had 162 mills and furnaces, with 1,904 stamps, and capable of reducing daily 5,183 tons of ore. The mills turned out, for 1871, \$20,010,175, and for 1872, \$23,719,212 in gold and silver bullion, besides several thousand tons of lead, copper and antimony. The counties which produced more than \$1,000,000 in bullion, in 1871, were the following: Lander, \$2,099,014; Lincoln, \$3,604,833; Storey, \$10,644,704; White Pine, \$1,228,266. The richest silver and gold deposit of the state, and probably in the world, is the famous "Comstock Lode" in the Virginia Range, Storey county. It crops out on the eastern slope of the range at an altitude of about 2,000 feet above the level of the plains, and has been clearly traced about four miles, within two of which are the portions that have thus far been developed. The "Sutro Tunnel,"

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now in progress of construction, is intended to facilitate the working of the mines on the Comstock Lode, by penetrating the vein at a greater depth. When completed it will make easy the drainage of the mines, and will allow the ores to be brought to the surface at an easy grade, thus avoiding the expense of pumping and hoisting from great depths.

94. — The soil is good, and agriculture is in a prosperous condition. Stock raising is also a profitable pursuit, and manufacturing is gaining considerable headway.

95. — Education is progressing, but is yet in its infancy. The government is well planned. Every male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, who shall have actually resided in the state six months, and in the district or county thirty days next preceding an election, shall be entitled to vote. The legislative authority is vested in the Senate and Assembly. The members of the Assembly, thirty-six in number, are chosen biennially for two years. The senators, eighteen in number, are chosen at the same time and places as members of the assembly, for four years. The sessions of the Legislature are biennial, commencing on the first Monday of January next ensuing the election of members of the assembly. The executive government consists of the Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Comptroller, Surveyor General and Attorney General, who are elected by the qualified electors at the time and places of voting for the members of the Legislature. They hold their offices for four years.

96. — The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, District Court, and in Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices, who are elected by the people and hold their offices for the term of six years. This court has appellate jurisdiction in all cases of equity, in all cases at law in which is involved the title or possession of real estate and mining claims; and on

questions of law in criminal cases, in which the case charged amounts to felony. The state is divided into nine judicial districts. The District Judges are elected by the people for the term of four years.

New Hampshire.

97.—This state takes its name from Hampshire county, Eng. It was first settled at Portsmouth, by the English, in 1626, and was admitted into the Union in 1788. The surface has an area of 9,280 square miles, and is hilly and mountainous. The climate is rigid, the winters being long and very severe. The summers are mild and pleasant. Agriculture and manufacturing are the principal industries.

98.—The schools are well supported. An excellent State Normal School is at Plymouth. It was established in 1870. The higher institutions of learning comprise Dartmouth College at Hanover, which was founded in 1769, and had, in 1871, twenty-three instructors and 360 students. The "Chandler Scientific School" is also at Hanover. The "Methodist Biblical Institute," a theological college, is at Concord. The New Hampshire College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts was opened in 1870, and occupied Culler Hall at Hanover. It has nine instructors.

99.—The early settlements in New Hampshire were annexed to Massachusetts in 1641, but became a separate province in 1741. It was one of the thirteen original states, framed a constitution in 1776, and ratified the United States Constitution June 21, 1788. The legislative power is vested in the Senate and House of Representatives. The former consists of twelve members, who hold their office for one year; the latter has one member for every town, parish or place entitled to town privileges, having 150 ratable male polls of twenty-one years of age or upwards; two members for every town, etc., having 450 ratable polls, and so proceeding in that proportion. The representatives are chosen by ballot for one year. The Legislature is officially styled the General Court of

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New Hampshire. The Governor is chosen annually in March; must be thirty years of age; must be of the Protestant religion, and must have been an inhabitant of the state for seven years next preceding the election. There are annually elected five Councilors, for advising the Governor in the executive part of government. All judicial officers, the Attorney General, Solicitor, Sheriff, Coroners, Registers of Probate, and general field officers of the militia, are appointed by the Governor and Council. The Secretary of State, Treasurer and Commissary General are chosen by joint ballot of the Senators and Representatives. The Superior Court is the only tribunal of general jurisdiction.

New Jersey.

100.—This state received its name in honor of Sir George Carteret. It was first settled by the English, at Elizabethtown, in 1664, and was admitted to the Union in 1787. The surface has an area of 8,320 square miles, and is level in the southern part but hilly and broken in the northern part. The climate is mild and agreeable. Minerals of iron ore and zinc are found in large quantities. Agriculture and manufacturing, especially the latter, are very important industries in New Jersey.

101.—Education is liberally supported. The Board of Education consists of the Governor, Attorney General, Secretary of State, President of the Senate, Speaker of the House, and the Trustees of the Normal School. This board appoints the state and county superintendents of the public schools. The State Normal School at Trenton is in successful operation, and had, in 1872, 34 male and 194 female students. The Farnum Preparatory School at Beverly, and the Model School, are connected with the Normal School. The College of New Jersey, at Princeton, is the foremost institution of learning in the state, and in its aims and purposes resembles Yale and Harvard Colleges. In 1871 it had 18 instructors

and 380 students. Rutgers College, comprising an academic and a scientific school, is at New Brunswick. The Glenwood Collegiate Institute is at Matawan, and Seton Hall College at South Orange. There is also a college at Bordentown, and another at Burlington. The Presbyterian Seminary at Princeton was founded in 1812, and the Drew Theological Seminary at Madison, in 1867.

102.—New Jersey was first settled by Danes, Swedes and Dutch, and was dependent on New York until 1788, when it was made an independent province. It was one of the thirteen original states, adopted a constitution in 1776, and ratified the United States Constitution, Dec. 18, 1787. Every male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years, who shall have been a resident of the state one year, and of the county in which he claims to vote, five months next before the election, shall be entitled to vote for all officers that now are or hereafter may be elective by the people. The legislative power is vested in a Senate and General Assembly. The two houses meet yearly on the second Tuesday in January. The Senate consists of one member for each county (at present twenty-one), chosen by the legal voters for three years. The Assembly is composed of members annually elected, who are apportioned among the counties according to the number of their inhabitants, provided that each county shall at all times be entitled to one member, and the whole number of members shall not exceed sixty (which is at present the actual number).

103.—The executive power is vested in a Governor, who is elected by the legal voters for three years, shall not be less than thirty years of age, and shall have been a citizen of the United States for at least twenty years, and a resident of the state seven years next before his election. The Secretary of State is appointed by the Governor by and with the consent of the Senate, for a term of five years. The Treasurer is elected by the Legislature for one year; the State

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tendent of Public Schools is appointed by the Trustees
of the School Fund for two years, and the Adjutant
General and Quartermaster General are appointed by
the Governor.

104.—The judicial power is vested in a Court of
Errors and Appeals; a Court for the Trial of Impeach-
ment, a Court of Chancery, a Prerogative Court, a Su-
preme Court, Circuit Courts and such inferior courts
as now exist or may hereafter be established by law.
The Court of Errors and Appeals consists of the
Chancellor, the Justices of the Supreme Court, and six
Judges, who are appointed for six years.

105.—The House of Assembly has the power of
impeachment; and all impeachments are tried by the
Senate. The Court of Chancery consists of a Chan-
cellor, who is the Ordinary or Surrogate-General, and
Judge of the Prerogative Court. The Supreme Court
consists of a Chief Justice and four Associate Justices.
Justices of the Supreme Court, Chancellor and Judges
of the Court of Error and Appeals, are appointed by
the Governor with the consent of the Senate. The
Justices of the Supreme Court and Chancellor hold
their office for seven years. The Circuit Courts are
held in every county by one or more justices of the
Supreme Court, or a judge appointed for that pur-
pose.

New York.

106.—This state takes its name in honor of the
Duke of York. It was first settled by the Dutch in
1613, at New York City. The surface has an area of
47,000 square miles, and is greatly diversified, includ-
ing rolling plateaus, level valleys, and lofty mountains.
The climate is characterized by great extremes, but,
upon the whole, is salubrious. The mineral treasures
are great, yet there is no coal or precious metals. Iron
ores are abundant. The soil is good, but varies in
different portions; agriculture has attained to great
importance, and manufacturing is conducted on a scale

at once stupendous. The commerce of New York is greater than that of any state in the Union.

107.— Education is keeping pace with the other interests. There are eight Normal schools, and the number of higher educational institutions is very large, and includes Columbia College, University of New York, Manhattan College and Rutgers College for female students — all in New York city; Cornell University at Ithaca; the St. Lawrence University at Canton; the Alfred University at Alfred; Hamilton College at Clinton; the University of Rochester; Elmira Female College; Vassar College for young ladies, near Poughkeepsie; Ingham University at Le Roy; the Baker Collegiate Institute at Brooklyn, and the celebrated Collegiate and Polytechnic Institute also at Brooklyn. The twenty-two higher institutions, exclusive of the professional schools, had, in 1871, 3,207 pupils and 303 instructors. There were further, thirty-six medical schools, eleven theological seminaries, and five law schools. The 232 academies had nearly 30,000 pupils and 1,061 instructors. An agricultural college is connected with Cornell University, a polytechnic department with the University of New York, and a mining school with Columbia College.

108.— The history of the government is full of interest. Hendrick Hudson, an English navigator, in the service of the Dutch East India Company, was the first European who (in 1609) entered the Bay of New York and explored the river now bearing his name. Four years later the Dutch established trading posts on Manhattan Island and below Albany. In 1614 the colony received the name of "New Netherlands," but, in 1664, the Duke of York appeared with a squadron before New Amsterdam and demanded its surrender. Gov. Stuyvesant had to yield, and the colony received the name of New York. The Dutch retook it in 1673; but in the following year it was finally ceded to the English by the treaty of Westminster. New York is one of the original thirteen states of the Union; framed

free of New York is the Union. In place with the other schools, and the institutions is very large, University of New York; College for females; Cornell University at Ithaca; Hamilton College at Rochester; Elmira for young ladies, near by at Le Roy; the Brooklyn, and the Catholic Institute also at other institutions, excluded, in 1871, 3,207 were further, thirty-eight seminaries, and armies had nearly 30,000. An agricultural University, a polytechnic University of New York, and a College. The government is full of intelligent navigators, in the Hudson Company, was the first to enter the Bay of New York now bearing his name. The Dutch trading posts on the Hudson. In 1614 the Dutch "Netherlands," but, after a struggle with a squadron of the English, commanded its surrender. The colony received the Dutch back in 1673; it finally ceded to the English. New York is one of the Union; framed

a constitution in 1777, and ratified the United States constitution July 26, 1788. The state constitution has been amended several times. The constitution framed by the convention in session from June to October, 1846, was ratified at the general election in November following. In 1866 the measure of holding a convention was approved by the people, and in June, 1867, the convention met, and terminated its labors in February, 1868. The new constitution was submitted to the people, but only the amended judiciary article was adopted. With this exception, the constitution of 1846 is still in force. The legislative authority is vested in a Senate and Assembly. The Senate has 32 members, and the Senators are chosen for two years. The Assembly consists of 128 members, who are chosen for one year. The executive authority is vested in a Governor, who must be thirty years of age, and must have been a resident of the state for five years next preceding an election. The Governor is elected for two years at the times and places of choosing members of the Assembly. The Lieutenant Governor is chosen for two years and is president of the Senate, but only has a casting vote therein. The Secretary of State, Comptroller, Treasurer, Attorney General and State Engineer and Surveyor are chosen at a general election for two years. Three Canal Commissioners and three Inspectors of State Prisons are chosen for three years.

109.—The Assembly has the power of impeachment. The court for the trial of impeachments is composed of the President of the Senate, the Senators, or the major part of them, and the Judges of the Court of Appeals, or the major part of them. The Court of Appeals is composed of a Chief Judge and six Associated Justices, who are chosen by the electors for a term of fourteen years. The state is divided into eight districts, each of which has a Supreme Court. The Supreme Court has general jurisdiction in law and equity, subject to the appellate jurisdiction of the

Court of Appeals. Five of the justices reside in the district which is the city of New York, and four in each of the other districts. The justices of the Supreme Court are elected for fourteen years. Every county has its County Court, Surrogate Court, and several Justices of the Peace.

North Carolina.

110.—This state takes its name in honor of Charles II. It was first settled by the English at Albemarle Sound in the seventeenth century. The surface has an area of 45,000 square miles, and is considerably diversified. The climate of the southern part of the state is very warm; that of the northern portion, more agreeable. The soil, upon the whole, is fertile, yet there are many barrens and swamps. Manufacturing and commerce have gained considerable headway.

111.—The schools are under successful management. The principal higher institutions are the North Carolina University, at Chapel Hill (founded in 1795); Wake Forest College, Davidson College, Trinity College, in Randolph county; Olin College, in Iredell county; North Carolina College, at Mount Pleasant; the Concord Female College, at Statesville; the Davenport Female College, at Lenoir; the Chowan Female Collegiate Institute, at Murfreesborough, and the Raleigh Baptist College, at Raleigh.

112.—The history of the state and the peculiar character of its government are subjects worthy of notice. North Carolina was settled by emigrants from Virginia in 1650, at Albemarle, and received a charter in May, 1663. It adopted a state constitution in December, 1776, and ratified the United State Constitution in November, 1789. The new state constitution was framed by a convention in 1868, and ratified by the people in April of the same year. The state was readmitted into the Union by act of Congress, June 25, 1868. The legislative authority is vested in a Senate and House of Representatives. The two branches of the "General Assembly" meet annually, on the third

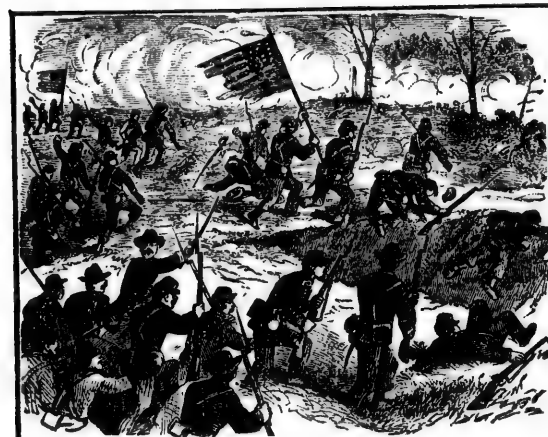
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Monday in November. The Senate consists of 50 Senators, chosen biennially by ballot. The House of Representatives is composed of 120 Representatives, elected biennially by the counties respectively. Each Senator must be not less than twenty-five years of age, must have resided as a citizen in the state two years, and must have resided in the district from which he is chosen, one year immediately preceding the election. Each member of the House must be a qualified elector, and must have resided in the county for which he is chosen one year immediately preceding his election.

113.—The executive department consists of a Governor, a Lieutenant-Governor, a Secretary of State, an Auditor, a Treasurer, a Superintendent of Public Works, a Superintendent of Public Instruction and an Attorney-General, who are elected by the qualified electors for a term of four years. The Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, Superintendent of Public Works and Superintendent of Public Instruction constitute *ex officio* the Council of State, who advise the Governor in the execution of his office, and three of whom constitute a quorum.



114.—The Senate is the court for the trial of impeachments. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and four Associate Justices. The state is divided into twelve judicial districts, for each of which a judge is chosen, who holds a Superior Court in each county in said district at least twice a year. The Judges of the Supreme Court and of the Superior Courts are elected for eight years. The distinction between actions at law and suits in equity is abolished, and there is in the state but one form of action for the protection of private rights or the redress of private wrongs, which is denominated a civil action. Every male citizen twenty-one years of age or upward, who has resided in the state for twelve months, and in the county thirty days, preceding an election, is entitled to vote.

Ohio.

115.—This state derives its name from an Indian word, meaning Beautiful River. It was first settled at Marietta, in 1788, and was admitted to the Union in 1802. The surface has an area of 39,964 square miles, and is pleasantly diversified. The agricultural and manufacturing industries of the state are very large and prosperous. The climate is good.

116.—There is perhaps no better system of public schools in the United States than in Ohio. "Each township has a board of education, and each subdistrict a local board of trustees, which manages its school affairs, subject to the control of the township board. All public schools are required to be in session at least 24 weeks during the year. The Probate Judge of each county appoints a board of school examiners, which has power to grant certificates to teachers for a term not exceeding two years. In 1865, a State Board of Examiners was created with power to issue certificates for life to teachers eminent for learning, skill and experience. Irreducible or special school funds were created by the sales of the lands appropriated by Congress for school purposes. The state pays annually six per cent. interest on these funds to the counties and towns." The Ohio University, a state institution, founded in 1804, is located at Athens; the Miami University is at Oxford; Oberlin College is at Berlin; the Baldwin University at Berea; Kenyon College at Gambier; Denison University at Granville, etc. Ohio has no State Normal Schools. Of the nine Normal Schools, but one, the "Southwestern," receives subvention from the state school fund. The number of colleges, universities and academies, in 1871, was 93; nor is there any lack of technical and professional schools.

117.—Ohio was formed from the Northwestern Territory ceded to the United States by Virginia, in 1783, and admitted into the Union as a state in 1803. "The Governor, Lieutenant Governor and Treasurer

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are elected by the people for two years, and for the same period the Secretary of State and Attorney General; but their elections take place in alternate years. The Comptroller of the Treasury and the State School Commissioners are elected for three years, and the Auditor of State for four years. The three members of the board of public works are elected for three years, one going out of office each year. The members of the legislature — senators and representatives — are elected for two years. In 1872, the Senate consisted of 36 members, and the House of Representatives of 105 members.

118. — The judicial power of the state is vested in a Supreme Court, Courts of Common Pleas, District Courts, Probate Courts and Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court consists of five judges, chosen by the people for a term of five years; one judge retiring from office each year. The judge having the shortest time to serve is Chief Justice. This court holds at least one term each year at Columbus, and such other terms as may be provided by law. The state is divided into nine common pleas districts, one of which is formed by Hamilton county. The eight other districts are each divided into three subdistricts, for each of which one judge is elected for a term of five years. District courts, composed of the judges of the common pleas courts of the respective districts, and presided over by one of the judges of the Supreme Court, are held in each county at least once in each year. White male citizens of the United States, 21 years of age, who have resided in the state one year are entitled to vote."

Oregon.

119. — This state takes its name from a Spanish term meaning Wild Marjoram. It was first settled by Americans at Astoria, in 1811, and was admitted into the Union in 1859. The surface has an area of 100,000 square miles, and is characterized by mountain chains. The climate is mild and remarkable for

'equability.' Gold has been found in large quantities, and almost inexhaustible deposits of iron ore are within easy access.

120.— Congress has donated to the state lands for educational and other purposes, as follows: 1. School lands proper, i. e., the 16th and 36th sections, or their equivalent, where portions of such sections were held by donation claimants prior to the public surveys. 2. University lands, consisting of 72 sections, for the use and support of a state university. 3. Five hundred thousand acres of land for purposes of internal improvement, and which have been designated as state lands. 4. Ninety thousand acres of land for the support of an agricultural college. The higher educational institutions were the following: The Pacific University, at Forest Grove (founded in 1848); the Willamette University (Methodist), at Salem; the Oregon College (Baptist), at Oregon City; the Holy Angels' College, at Vancouver; the Philomath College, at Philomath; the Corvallis College, at Corvallis; the Umpqua College; the St. Helen's Hall College, at Portland; the Oakland Academy and St. John's High School, at Eugene City; the Albany Collegiate Institute, at Albany; the St. Mary's Academy and Jacksonville Academy, at Jacksonville, and the Roseburgh Academy, at Wilbur. The State University has not yet been established, nor has the Agricultural College been organized.

121.— Oregon was organized as a territory in 1848, was divided in 1852, the northern portion being called Washington, and the southern Oregon. A state constitution was adopted in 1857, and it was admitted into the Union in 1859. The Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer and State Printer, are elected for four years. The general election for state and county officers is held biennially on the first Monday of June. The legislative assembly consists of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The former is composed of sixteen Senators, elected for four years; the latter of thirty-

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Pennsylvania.

122.— This state derives its name from a Latin term meaning Penn's Woods. It was first settled by the English at Philadelphia, in 1683, and was admitted to the Union in 1787. The surface has an area of 46,000 square miles, and is quite pleasantly diversified by mountain, hill and vale. The climate varies according to elevation. Iron and coal deposits render Pennsylvania one of the richest mining states in the Union.

123.— Education is liberally supported. The first permanent school fund was created in 1831, and therewith the first foundation laid for the public school system. In that year the state had but 93 school districts with 451 schools. In 1838, there were 840 districts with 5,269 schools. In 1857, the law for the establishment of twelve normal schools was passed.

124.— Of the thirty universities and colleges in the state, the following are the most prominent: The University of Pennsylvania, founded in 1755, and located at Philadelphia; Dickinson College (Methodist), at Carlisle; Washington and Jefferson College, at Washington; the Moravian College, at Bethlehem; Alleghany College, at Meadville; the Western University, at Pittsburgh; La Fayette College (Presbyterian), at Easton; Lehigh University, at South Bethlehem; Pennsylvania College, at Gettysburg; Haverford College (Quaker), at West Haverford; the Augustinian College of Villa Nova (Roman Catholic), in Delaware county; Lewisburg University, at Lewisburg; St. Vincent's College (Roman Catholic), in Westmoreland county;

Muhlenburg College (Lutheran), at Allentown, and Franklin Marshall College, at Lancaster.

125.—According to the census of 1870, the six universities of Pennsylvania had 127 teachers, of whom 17 were females, and 1,391 male and 170 female students. There were six medical, two dental, eleven theological, one agricultural and eight commercial schools in the state.

126.—The territory embraced within the present limits of Pennsylvania was granted by Charles II to William Penn, and was settled by English Quakers under his direction in 1681. The State Constitution was adopted in 1776, and has since been amended in 1838, 1850, 1857, and 1871. In December, 1873, a new constitution, to take effect January 1, 1874, except in certain specified instances, was submitted to the people and ratified by nearly 150,000 majority. Under its provisions, the executive department consists of a Governor, elected for four years; a Lieutenant Governor, elected for the same time; a Secretary of the Commonwealth, an Attorney General and Superintendent of Public Instruction, the two first nominated by the Governor, and confirmed by the Senate during pleasure, the latter for a term of four years; a Secretary of Internal Affairs, elected for four years; an Auditor General, elected for three years, and a State Treasurer, elected for two years.

127.—The legislative power is vested in a General Assembly, consisting of a Senate and House of Representatives. Senators are elected for a term of four years, and Representatives for two years. The number of Senators is fifty. The members of the House of Representatives are apportioned among the counties on a ratio obtained by dividing the population of the state by two hundred.

128.—Any male citizen twenty-one years of age, who shall have been a citizen of the United States for one month, who shall have resided in the state one year (or six months, if a former elector therein),

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129.—The judicial power of the state is vested in
a Supreme Court, composed of seven judges, elected
for a term of twenty-one years; in Courts of Common
Pleas, which shall have one judge for every district of
40,000 inhabitants, and who is to be elected for ten
years; in Courts of Oyer and Terminer, General Jail
Delivery, Quarter Sessions and Orphans' Courts, which
are to be presided over by the Judge of the Common
Pleas Court in the same district.

Rhode Island.

130.—The State was first settled at Providence
by the English in 1633, and in 1790 it was admitted
to the Union. The surface has an area of only 1,306
square miles, and is hilly and broken, but includes
no mountains. The temperature is similar to that of
Massachusetts.

131.—Education is ably encouraged. A State
Normal School was established in 1871 at Provi-
dence. The foremost of the higher educational in-
stitutions is Brown University (Baptist), which was
founded in 1754 at Providence, and had, in 1873,
204 students and thirteen instructors; Lapham Insti-
tute, a school of the Free Will Baptists, is at Scituate;
the Friends' School and the Providence Conference
Seminary (Methodist) are at Providence.

132.—The Constitution of Rhode Island was
framed in 1842, and amended in 1854 and 1864.
According to it every male citizen of the United
States, of the age of twenty-one years, who has had
his residence and home in the state for one year, and
in the town and city in which he may claim the right
to vote, six months next preceding the time of voting,
and who is possessed of real estate in such town or
city of the value of \$134 above all incumbrances, or
which shall rent for \$7 per annum over any rent re-
served, has the right to vote.

133.—The executive power is vested in the Gov-

ernor, who, together with the Lieutenant Governor, is annually elected by the people. The General Assembly consists of a Senate (one Senator from each town or city), and a House of Representatives of seventy-two members. The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Senators, Representatives, Secretary of State, Attorney General and General Treasurer, are elected annually on the first Wednesday of April. The judicial power of the state is vested in one Supreme Court, the judges of which are elected by the two Houses in Grand Committee and such inferior courts as the General Assembly may from time to time establish.

South Carolina.

134.—This State derives its name in honor of Charles II. It was first settled in 1670 by the English at Ashley River, and was admitted as a state in 1788. The surface has an area of 29,385 square miles, and is gently undulating, except the north-western corner, which is hilly or mountainous.

135.—Gold and other minerals of great value are found. The foremost of the higher educational institutions is the University of South Carolina, which was founded in 1801, and attended in 1872 by eighty-eight students. The establishment of a State Normal School is provided for by the new constitution, but up to 1870 there existed only a "Normal Class" in the Avery Institute at Charleston. Other higher schools are the College of Charleston; the Furman University (Baptist), at Greenville; the Claflin University (Methodist), at Orangeburgh; the Woffard College (Methodist), at Spartanburgh; the Newberry College (Lutheran), at Walhalla; the Theological Seminary (Presbyterian), and the Lutheran Theological Seminary, both at Columbia, and the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, at Greenville.

136.—The government is similar to that of the other reconstructed states. The present constitution was framed by a convention, sitting from January 14

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to March 17, 1868, and was ratified by the people in
April. It provides that every male citizen of the
United States, of the age of twenty-one years and
over, who was a resident of the state at the time of
the adoption of the constitution, or who hereafter has
resided in the state one year, and in the county in
which he offers to vote sixty days next preceding an
election, is entitled to vote.

137.—The legislative power is vested in two dis-
tinct branches, the Senate and House of Represen-
tatives, and both together are styled the "General
Assembly of the State of South Carolina." The
House of Representatives is composed of 124 mem-
bers, chosen by ballot every second year by the
citizens of the state. The Senate is composed of one
member for each county. The county of Charleston
is represented by two senators. The chief executive
authority is vested in a Governor, who is elected for
two years. The qualified voters of the state elect
also a Comptroller General and Treasurer and a Sec-
retary of State, who hold their offices for four years.

138.—The judicial power is vested in a Supreme
Court, in two Circuit Courts, viz.: a Court of Com-
mon Pleas, having civil jurisdiction, and a Court of
General Sessions, with criminal jurisdiction only; in
Probate Courts and in Justices of the Peace. The
Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two
Associate Justices, any two of whom constitute a
quorum. It has appellate jurisdiction only in cases
of chancery, and constitutes a court for the Correction
of Errors of Law. It is held once in each year at
the seat of government, and at such other places as
the General Assembly may direct.

Tennessee.

139.—This State takes its name from an Indian
term meaning "River with the Great Bend." It was
first settled by the English at Fort London in 1757,
and was admitted to the Union in 1796. The surface
has an area of 45,600 square miles, and is diversified

by mountain chains, table lands, valleys and plains. The climate is not subject to great extremes of either heat or cold.

140.—Coal and iron are the most valuable minerals of the state. The coal is of a high quality, and is almost inexhaustible. The soil is, in many large portions of the state, very good.

141.—Until within the last year or two, education had made but little progress in this state; but it is now rapidly gaining. The principal higher institutions of education are the University of Nashville, organized in 1806 and having 270 students in 1871; the East Tennessee University, at Knoxville, organized in 1807; the Central Tennessee College, at Nashville, organized in 1866, and having, in 1871, 226 students; the Lookout Mountain Institution, organized in 1866; the Fisk University, at Nashville, for colored students, organized in 1867, and the East Tennessee Wesleyan University, at Athens, organized in 1867.

142.—The territory embraced within the limits of the state originally formed a part of North Carolina, but was ceded to the United States in 1784. A constitution was adopted in 1796, and in June the same year the state was admitted into the Union. By an act passed November 15, 1869, a convention was directed to be called for revising the constitution. It was duly elected, met at Nashville in January, 1870, and completed its labors in February. The new constitution then framed was ratified by a popular vote in March, 1870, and is now in force.

143.—Every male person of the age of twenty-one years, being a citizen of the United States and a resident of the state for twelve months, and in the county wherein he may offer his vote for six months next preceding an election, shall be entitled to vote for members of the general assembly and other civil officers for the county or district in which he resides.

144.—The supreme executive power is vested in

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a Governor, who is chosen by the electors of the members of the general assembly for a term of two years. He must be at least thirty years of age, and must have been a citizen of the state for seven years next before his election. A Secretary of State is appointed by joint vote of the general assembly for four years; a Treasurer and a Comptroller of the Treasury are appointed in the same manner for a term of two years. The Governor appoints his Adjutant General and his other staff officers.

145.— The legislative authority is vested in a general assembly, which consists of a Senate and House of Representatives, who hold their offices for two years from the day of the general election. No person shall be a representative unless he shall be a citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years, and shall have been a citizen of the state for three years and a resident of the county he represents one year immediately preceding the election; and no person shall be a senator unless he shall be a citizen of the United States, of the age of thirty years, and shall have resided three years in the state and one year in the county or district immediately preceding the election.

146.— The judicial power is vested in one Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, Chancery Courts and Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court consists of five judges, who designate one of their own number to preside as Chief Justice. The concurrence of three judges is necessary to a decision. The jurisdiction of the court is appellate only. Its sessions are held at Knoxville, Nashville and Jackson. The judges are elected by the legal voters for terms of eight years. The judges of the Circuit and Chancery courts are also elected for eight years. The Attorney General and Reporter for the State are appointed by the Judges of the Supreme Court for eight years.

Texas.

147.— This state has an area of 237,321 square

miles. The surface is diversified. The climate is very warm, but free from extremes. The state is rich in minerals, but they are, as yet but slightly developed. Agriculture and manufacturing have made considerable progress.

148.—Education is now progressing on a solid foundation. "Texas was admitted as a state into the Union in 1845, and passed an ordinance of secession on February 5, 1861. After the close of the war a provisional governor took charge of the executive department in 1865, and called a state convention; which assembled at Austin in February, 1866. Under the reconstruction acts of Congress of 1867, Texas was included in the fifth military division. The state constitutional convention having reassembled in December, 1868, completed its labors, and the new constitution was ratified by a vote of the people at the election held in November, 1869. In March, 1870, Congress admitted Texas to representation upon the conditions that no citizen or class of citizens should ever be deprived of the right to vote except as punishment for crimes, and that no citizen or class of citizens should be deprived of the school rights and privileges secured by the constitution of the state."

149.—Every male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upward, without distinction of race, color or former condition of servitude, who shall have resided in the state for one year, and in the county in which he offers to vote sixty days next preceding any election, is entitled to vote.

150.—The legislative power of the state is vested in two branches; the one styled the Senate and the other the House of Representatives, and both together the Legislature of the State of Texas. The members of the House of Representatives, ninety in number, are chosen for a term of two years, and must have resided in the state two years, and in the county or town from which they are chosen one year next preceding their election. The senators, thirty in number, are chosen

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for six years. Those elected at the first election were divided by lot into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class were vacated at the expiration of the first two years; those of the second class at the expiration of four years; and those of the third class at the expiration of six years, so that one-third thereof is chosen biennially. No person can be senator unless he be a citizen of the United States and a citizen of the state three years next preceding the election, and the last year thereof a resident of the district for which he is chosen, and have attained the age of twenty-five years.

151.—The executive department consists of a Governor, Lieutenant Governor, Secretary of State, Comptroller of Public Accounts, Treasurer, Commissioner of the General Land Office, Attorney General and Superintendent of Public Instruction. The Governor and Lieutenant Governor are elected for four years. They must be thirty years of age, citizens of the United States, and must have been residents and citizens of the state for three years immediately preceding their election. The Secretary of State and the Attorney General are appointed by the Governor, by and with the consent of the Senate, and continue in office during the term of service of the Governor elect. The Treasurer of the state and the Commissioner of the General Land Office are elected at the same time of the election of the Governor, having the same qualifications as the Governor.

152.—"The judicial power of the state is vested in one Supreme Court, in District Courts and such inferior courts and magistrates as may be created by the Constitution or by the Legislature under its authority. The Supreme Court consists of three Judges, any two of whom constitute a quorum. They are appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, for a term of nine years. The term of one of the judges expires every three years. The Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction only.

In criminal cases no appeal is allowed to the Supreme Court, unless some judge thereof, upon inspecting a transcript of the record, believes that some error of law has been committed by the judge before whom the case is tried. The Supreme Court holds its sessions annually at the capital of the state. The state is divided into judicial districts, for each of which one judge is appointed by the Governor, by and with the consent of the Senate, for a term of eight years. The District Court has original jurisdiction of all criminal cases, of all causes in behalf of the state to recover penalties, forfeitures and escheats; of all cases of divorce; of all suits to recover damages for slander; of all suits for the trial of title to land; of all suits, when the matter in controversy amounts to \$100. The District court has appellate jurisdiction in cases originating in inferior courts, and original and exclusive jurisdiction for the probate of wills; for the appointment of guardians; for the granting of letters of administration; for the settling of accounts of executors, administrators and guardians; and for the transaction of all business appertaining to the estate of deceased persons, minors, idiots and lunatics. Justices of the Peace have such criminal and civil jurisdiction as is provided by law. Each county is divided into five justices' precincts."

Vermont.

153.— This State takes its name from a French term meaning Green Mountain. It was first settled in 1724 at Fort Drummond, by the English. The surface contains an area of 10,212 square miles, and is broken by the Green Mountains. The climate is cold and marked by great extremes. Iron ore is abundant, and other less valuable minerals. Agriculture is the principal industry.

154.— The public schools are well supported and are, in most of the villages, well graded. Three Normal schools have been established. The University of Vermont is located at Burlington, and the State Agri-

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cultural College has been incorporated with it. There are two other colleges and several academies in the state.

155. — Jurisdiction over the territory within the present limits of Vermont was claimed by Massachusetts, New Hampshire and New York. In January, 1771, a convention met at Westminster declaring the state an independent jurisdiction, to be forever known as "New Connecticut," alias "Vermont." The same convention met again in July, and appointed a committee to frame a constitution. The legislature, in February, 1779, passed an act declaring that the constitution, as established by general convention at Windsor in 1777, together with such alterations and additions as should be made in pursuance of its provisions, should be forever held and maintained as part of the laws of the state. After the controversy with New York was amicably settled, the legislature of Vermont, called a convention to ascertain the wishes of the people with regard to admission into the Union. The convention met, and in January, 1791, resolved to make application. An act was accordingly passed, to take effect March 4, 1791, by which Vermont was admitted with the rights and privileges of an independent state, and by another act, approved in March, 1791, the laws of the United States were extended over Vermont. There have been held under the constitution of the state, thirteen "Councils of Censors," at intervals of seven years, to propose changes to the constitution, and the changes thus proposed were adopted by the convention called by them. The first Council of Censors met in 1785, the thirteenth in 1869.

156. — Every man of twenty-one years of age, who is a native born citizen of some one of the United States, or has been naturalized and has resided in the state one year next before the time of election, and who will take the oath prescribed by the constitution, is entitled to the privileges of a freeman.

157. — The supreme executive power of the state is exercised by the Governor, or, in case of his absence, by the Lieutenant Governor. They are elected by ballot, hold their offices for two years, and must have resided in the state four years next preceding the day of election. The Treasurer is elected in the same manner and for the same time. The Secretary of State, the Auditor, and all other officers whose election is not otherwise provided for, are elected by the Senate and the House of Representatives in joint assembly.

158. — The supreme legislative power of the state is exercised by the Senate and the House of Representatives, which are styled the "General Assembly of the State of Vermont." The Senate is composed of thirty members who have attained the age of thirty years, and the House is composed of 241 members. Senators and representatives are elected biennially for two years.

159. — The judicial powers of the state are vested in a Supreme Court, a Court of Chancery, a County Court in each county, Justices of the Peace in the several towns, and a Probate Court in each probate district. The judges of the Supreme Court are elected biennially by the Legislature, and all other judicial officers by the people. Since 1870, the number of judges of the Supreme Court is seven. This court has no original jurisdiction, but is a court of errors. It holds annually a general term and also a term in each county. Each judge of the same is a chancellor, and holds his court at the same time as the County Court. The County Courts have original jurisdiction in divorce, in all civil actions for over \$200 and in relation to real estate. Two terms of the County Court are held in each county, annually, over which one of the judges of the Supreme Court presides, assisted by the two county judges. All actions out of the original jurisdiction of the County and Chancery Courts, except for divorce, must be brought before a Justice of the Peace.

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Virginia.

160. — This state takes its name in honor of Elizabeth the Virgin Queen. It was first settled in 1607, at Jamestown, by the English, and was admitted to the Union in 1788. The surface has an area of 38,352 square miles, and is diversified by hill and vale. The climate, upon the whole, is mild and salubrious. The state is rich in minerals. Gold is found, and iron ore is obtained in large quantities. Copper ores also promise to afford profitable investment. Other minerals of less importance enrich the geological formation.

161. — Until recently, the state has had no system of free public schools. In March, 1870, the first State Superintendent of Public Instruction was appointed, and the new school bill became a law in July the same year. Before the end of the first scholastic year, 1871, the number of schools had increased to 2,900, with about 130,469 pupils and 3,000 teachers. There is now every prospect that Virginia will steadily progress on the road begun, and at no distant day will offer to her growing population a system of thorough instruction.

162. — Before 1860, the state had twenty-three colleges, with 2,824 students, which were mostly closed during the war, a part of the buildings being burned and others used as hospitals or barracks. The college of William and Mary, at Williamsburgh, was chartered in 1693. The buildings were destroyed during the war; but in the fall of 1865, the college was reopened, and in 1871 it had twelve professors and seventy-six students. Washington and Lee University, at Lexington, was founded in 1782, and had, in 1871, twenty-two professors and 305 students. The University of Virginia, in Albemarle county, founded in 1825, was a flourishing institution in 1860, when it had 600 students. This number had diminished to less than fifty in 1863, but in 1871 it had 317 students and nineteen teachers. Provision has been made by

the Legislature for the admission of one student from each senatorial district, without payment of fees and rents.

163.—The state formed a constitution in July, 1776, and ratified the United States constitution in June, 1788. In 1861, the state of West Virginia was formed and set off from the old commonwealth. A new state government was instituted in 1863, at Alexandria. A convention, which met in February, 1864, abolished slavery. In May, 1865, a provisional Governor was appointed by the President of the United States. In December, 1868, a convention met at Richmond and framed a constitution which was adopted in July, 1869. The state was admitted to representation in Congress January 26, 1870.

164.—Every male citizen of the United States, twenty-one years of age, who shall have been a resident of the state for twelve months and of the county, city or town in which he shall offer to vote, three months next preceding any election, shall be entitled to vote.

165.—The chief executive power of the commonwealth is vested in a Governor, who holds the office for the term of four years, to commence on the first day of January next succeeding his election. The Governor is elected by the voters of the state at the times and places of choosing members of the General Assembly; must be a citizen of the United States, and if of foreign birth, must have been a citizen of the United States for ten years next preceding his election. He must have attained the age of thirty years, and must have resided in the state three years next preceding his election. A Lieutenant Governor is elected at the same time and for the same term as the Governor, and his qualification and the manner of his election must be the same. The Secretary of the Commonwealth, Treasurer and Auditor of Public Accounts are elected by the joint vote of the two houses of the General Assembly, and continue in office for

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166.—“The legislative power is vested in the General Assembly, which consists of a Senate and House of Delegates. The House of Delegates is elected biennially by the voters of the several cities and counties, and consists of 138 members. The Senate is elected for the term of four years, and consists of 43 senators, representing the 40 districts into which the state is divided. The General Assembly meets annually, and no session continues longer than 90 days without the concurrence of three-fifths of the members elected to each House, in which case the session may be extended for not more than 30 days longer.

167.—“The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court of Appeals, Circuit Courts and County Courts. The Court of Appeals consists of five judges, any three of whom may hold a court. It has appellate jurisdiction only, except in cases of habeas corpus, mandamus and prohibition. It has no jurisdiction in civil cases where the matter in controversy is less than \$500, except in controversies concerning the title and boundaries of land, etc. The judges are chosen by the joint vote of the two houses of the General Assembly, and hold their office for a term of twelve years. The state is divided into sixteen judicial circuits, for each of which a judge is chosen by the joint vote of the two houses of the General Assembly for a term of eight years. A Circuit Court is held at least twice a year by the judges of each circuit in every county and corporation thereof. In each county of the commonwealth there is a County Court, which is held monthly by a judge learned in the law of the state, and chosen for a term of six years. In each city or town containing a population of 5,000, there is elected by the joint vote of the two houses of the General Assembly, one City Judge, who holds a Corporation or Hustings Court of said city or town.”

West Virginia.

168.—The surface is mostly mountainous. The climate is mild. In pursuance of a requirement of the new constitution, a system of public schools has been adopted which is making good progress.

169.—The three normal schools (at Huntington, Fairmount and West Liberty) are in successful operation. The normal school at Huntington, called "Marshall College," was attended in 1872 by 195 pupils, 78 female and 117 male. The West Virginia University, at Morgantown, was organized in 1867, and is doing good work. A military department is connected with it.

170.—West Virginia "formed a part of the commonwealth of Virginia until the latter seceded from the Union. In June, 1861, delegates from thirty-nine counties assembled at Wheeling to protest against the act of secession, and to organize a provisional government. Another convention met in August, 1861, and passed an ordinance providing for an election to be held in October to decide upon the question of organizing a new state to be called the "State of Kanawha," embracing thirty-nine of the western counties of Virginia. The constitution of the new state was ratified by the people in May, 1862. Congress passed an act, admitting the state on condition of the adoption of certain amendments to the constitution. These changes were made and ratified by the people, and on April 20, 1863, the President of United States declared, by proclamation, that the new constitution should take effect in sixty days from that date. In March, 1866, the counties of Jefferson and Berkeley were recognized by Congress as annexed to the state of West Virginia. Another convention was held, and the new constitution agreed upon in April, 1872, was ratified in August.

171.—"The male citizens of the state are entitled to vote at all elections held within the counties in which they reside, except persons who have not re-

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sided in the state for one year, and in the county in which they offer to vote, for sixty days, next preceding an election. The legislative power is vested in a Senate and House of Delegates, which are styled "the Legislature of West Virginia." The Senate is composed of twenty-four members, one-half of whom are elected biennially for the term of four years. The House is composed of sixty-five delegates, who are elected for two years.

172.—"The executive department consists of a Governor, Secretary of State, State Superintendent of Free Schools, Auditor, Treasurer and Attorney General, who is ex-Officio Reporter of the Court of Appeals. These officers are elected by the legal voters of the state for a term of four years, commencing on March 4th next after their election.

173.—"The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court of Appeals and in Circuit Courts and the judges thereof; in County and Corporation Courts and in Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court is composed of four judges, who are elected by the voters of the state for the term of twelve years. It has original jurisdiction in cases of habeas corpus, mandamus and prohibition, and appellate jurisdiction in civil cases where the matter in controversy exceeds \$100 in value, exclusive of costs; in controversies concerning the title or boundaries of land, probate of wills, the appointment or qualification of a personal representative, guardian, committee or curator, or concerning a mill, roadway, ferry or landing, or the right of a corporation or county to levy taxes. It has appellate jurisdiction in criminal cases where there has been a conviction for felony or misdemeanor in a circuit court, and where a conviction has been had in any inferior court and been affirmed in a circuit court. The state is divided into nine circuits, for each of which a judge is elected by the voters thereof, who holds his office for a term of eight years. A circuit court is held in every county twice a year. The circuit courts have the

supervision of all proceedings before the county court, and other inferior tribunals, and with certain exceptions have original and general jurisdiction of all matters at law where the amount in controversy exceeds \$50. They have appellate jurisdiction in all cases of judgments, decrees and final orders rendered by the county courts where the matter in controversy exceeds \$20 in value.

174.—“In each county there is a county court, which is composed of a president and two justices of the peace. It holds six sessions during the year. The president is elected by the voters of the county for four years. Each county is laid off into districts not less than three nor more than ten in number, in each of which one or two justices of the peace are elected by the voters thereof for four years.”

Wisconsin.

175.—This state takes its name from an Indian term meaning Gathering of the Waters. It was first settled at Green Bay, by the French, in 1745, and was admitted to the Union in 1848. The surface has an area of 53,924 square miles, and is pleasantly diversified. The climate is quite severe and subject to sudden changes, but healthy.

176.—The state has made very liberal provisions for all classes of educational institutions. The public schools are under the supervision of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and county and city superintendents. The state has four Normal Schools, one at Platteville, one at Oshkosh, one at Whitewater and one at River Falls. The State University, at Madison, is in a prosperous condition, and had, in 1870, twenty-seven professors and 462 students, of whom 124 were females. It embraces a college of letters, a college of arts, a preparatory department and a female department. The college of arts is the agricultural and scientific college of the state. The other institutions for higher and professional education embrace twelve colleges, five academies, one law school and three theological schools.

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177.—Originally, Wisconsin formed part of the Territory of the Northwest. "Every male person of the age of twenty-one years and upward, belonging to either of the following classes, who shall have resided in the state for one year next preceding any election, shall be deemed a qualified voter at such election: 1. Citizens of the United States. 2. Persons of foreign birth, who shall have declared their intention to become citizens of the United States. 3. Persons of Indian blood, who have once been declared by law of Congress to be citizens of the United States; and 4. Civilized persons of Indian descent, not members of any tribe. The legislative power is vested in a Senate and Assembly. The Assembly, according to the constitution, shall never be less than fifty-four nor more than one hundred, and the Senate shall consist of a number not more than one-third nor less than one-fourth of the number of members of the Assembly. The members of the Assembly are chosen annually for one year, and the Senators annually for two years. The executive power is vested in a Governor, who holds his office for two years. A Lieutenant Governor is chosen at the same time and for the same term. There are further chosen at the time and places of choosing the members of the legislature, a Secretary of State, Treasurer, and an Attorney General and State Superintendent, who hold their offices for the term of two years. The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, Circuit Courts, Courts of Probate and Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court has appellate jurisdiction only; but in no case removed to the Supreme Court shall a trial by jury be allowed. It has a general superintending control over all inferior courts, and has power to issue writs of habeas corpus, mandamus, injunction, quo warranto, certiorari and other original and remedial writs. It holds at least one term annually at the seat of government. The state is divided into twelve judicial circuits, for each of which a judge is chosen by

the qualified electors therein. The Circuit Courts have original jurisdiction in all matters, civil and criminal, and appellate jurisdiction from all inferior courts and tribunals, and a supervisory control over the same. A Circuit Court is held at least twice in each year in each county of the state organized for judicial purposes. There is chosen in each county by the qualified electors thereof a Judge of Probate, who holds his office for two years; and the electors of the several towns elect Justices of the Peace, whose term of office is also two years." *

XIV. SKETCHES OF TERRITORIES.

Alaska.

1.—Alaska is a peninsula, occupying the extreme northwestern portion of the North American continent. Its surface has an area of 577,390 square miles, and is broken and mountainous. "It is traversed by the most northern range of the Rocky Mountains, and a large number of smaller chains intersect it in all directions. Most of the mountains do not rise above three thousand feet in height, but several greatly exceed this. Mount Fairweather rises to 14,768 feet in height, and the volcanoes, Mount St. Elias, 14,968 feet, and Illamano, 12,066 feet, rank among the loftiest peaks of the continent. But little of the country offers land suitable for agriculture, the greater part being rocky and sterile, or else swampy." The principal river is the Yukon or Kwitcheik.

2.—The climate is materially modified by a warm ocean current which flows along the southern coast. "At Sitka the thermometer rarely falls below zero, the mean temperature being about 44° Fahrenheit. The warm and moist sea air meeting with a cold current from the mountains, causes frequent fogs and rains along the southern coast. The average rainfall is between 80 and 90 inches annually, the months of September and October being especially wet. It is said

*From "Centennial Gazetteer," by A. Von Steinwehr.

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that about 250 days in the year are cloudy and rainy. In the northern part of the peninsula this influence is not felt, but as this portion lies within the Arctic circle, the climate is intensely cold, and the brief summer does not suffice to thaw the frozen soil."

3.—A heavy growth of timber covers the soil on the southern seaboard, lofty trees clothing the mountains to a height of 2,500 or 3,000 feet. The forests consist of Sitka spruce, yellow cedar, fir, hemlock, larch, and kindred species. In the more northern districts the soil is barren. Owing to the constant moisture the cereals do not ripen, the potatoes are small and watery, and garden vegetables yield but moderately. Cranberries and salmon berries grow wild.

4.—The wealth of Alaska is in its furs and fisheries. The latter include cod and mackerel, the former in great abundance. Seals, bears, deer, wolves, and other wild animals are numerous on the shores and in the interior. The seals afford a profitable source of revenue in their oil and skins, but the land animals are little hunted by the whites, owing to the impassable nature of the soil.

5.—The population of Alaska are principally natives. The Indians include Esquimaux along the northern shore, and the Kolusch and Kenai along the southern. The white inhabitants, exclusive of the military, numbered, in 1870, 461 souls. They are principally engaged in the fisheries and fur trade. The natives are without ambition, and have been contaminated by the intemperate and depraved habits of many of the white residents. Sitka, on the island of New Archangel, is the principal settlement.

6.—Alaska was discovered by the navigator, Vitus Behring, in 1741, from whom are named Behring Straits and Behring Sea. He took possession of it for the Russian government, in whose employ he was at the time. In 1778, Capt. Cook sailed along the western coast as far north as Icy Cape, in latitude 70° 20' N. In the year 1799, the region was granted to the

Russian-American Trading Company, who established posts at Sitka and elsewhere. Propositions for its sale to the United States were made in 1866, and the purchase was effected the following year, for \$7,200,000 in gold. The United States government took formal possession in October, 1867, since which date it has been under the charge of the United States military authorities stationed at Sitka.

Arizona.

7. — This Territory of the United States lies west of New Mexico. The territory was organized February 24, 1863, and the executive branch consists of a Governor, Secretary of State, a Treasurer and Receiver-General and an Auditor. The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court and Probate Courts. The Chief Justice and the two Associate Judges composing the Supreme Court are appointed by the President. This court holds one session annually at Tucson, commencing the fourth Monday of October.

Dakota.

8. — This Territory lies west of Minnesota and Iowa. The Governor and Secretary are appointed by the President. The Auditor, Treasurer and Superintendent of Public Instruction are chosen by the qualified electors. The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts and Probate Courts. The Supreme court is composed of one Chief Justice and two Associate Justices.

District of Columbia.

9. — In 1790, Maryland and Virginia ceded a square tract of land ten miles long and wide to the United States, as a site for the national capital. This tract was named the District of Columbia. In 1846 that part of the district which lies south of the Potomac River was retroceded to Virginia, and since then the northern or Maryland portion forms the national district, including the capital of the country (the city of Washington), and also the city of Georgetown.

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10.—An act of Congress, approved in February, 1871, provided a territorial government for the District, consisting of a Governor and a Council of eleven members, appointed by the President for four years, and a House of Delegates consisting of twenty two members, elected by the people. The judiciary consists of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, which was established in 1863, and is composed of four Justices, who are appointed by the President of the United States. This court has general jurisdiction in law and equity, and appellate jurisdiction in all judgments of the Justices of the Peace of the District. It holds three general terms annually at Washington. Recently the government of the District has been vested in a Board of Commissioners.

Idaho.

11.—This Territory lies east of Washington Territory, and west of Montana and Wyoming Territories. The gold fields of this territory are very rich. The Governor and Secretary of State are appointed by the President for a term of four years; the Treasurer, Comptroller and Superintendent of Public Instruction are elected by the people. The legislature comprises a Council of ten members, chosen for two years, and a House of Representatives of 20 members, chosen for one year.

12.—The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices, appointed by the President for four years. It holds at least one session annually at the seat of government. The territory is divided into three judicial districts, in each of which one of the Supreme Court Justices holds a District Court session.

Montana.

13.—This Territory lies west of Dakota and is very rich in gold and silver. It is one of the most promising territories of the Union.

14.—The government consists of a Governor, Secretary of State, District Attorney, Surveyor-General,

Superintendent of Indian Affairs, United States Commissioner and a Treasurer. These territorial officers are appointed by the President of the United States, by and with the consent of the Senate. The Legislature comprises a Council of 12 members and a House of Representatives of 26 members. The United States District Court of Montana is composed of one District Judge and two Associate Justices.

New Mexico.

15. — This Territory lies west of Texas and the Indian Territory, and is now seeking admission to the Union, which will probably be accomplished at an early day. The territory is rich in gold and silver.

16. — New Mexico was organized as a territory by act of Congress, September 9, 1850. The Governor, Secretary, Superintendent of Indian Affairs and Purveyor of Public Funds are appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices, appointed by the President for four years. This court holds one term annually at the seat of the territorial government. One of the justices holds a district court session in each of the three districts into which the territory has been divided. The Supreme and District Courts have chancery and common law jurisdiction.

Utah.

17. — This Territory lies west of Colorado. Gold is found in paying quantities. Utah, originally a part of Upper California, was ceded to the United States by treaty with Mexico, in 1848, and erected into a territory in September, 1850. It was first settled by the Mormons, a peculiar religious sect, calling themselves Latter Day Saints, in 1847, after their expulsion from Illinois, where they had founded the settlement of Nauvoo. The Governor and Secretary are appointed by the President of the United States for four years. The Legislative Assembly is composed of a Council and a House of Representatives. The 13 members of

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18. — The judicial power of the territory is vested
in a Supreme Court, District Courts, Probate Courts
and Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court con-
sists of one Chief Justice and two Associate Justices.
The territory is divided into three judicial districts, in
each of which a regular term of the Supreme Court is
held every year.

Washington.

19. — This Territory lies west of Idaho territory.
The territory, formerly a part of Oregon, was organ-
ized as a territory in March, 1853. The Governor and
Secretary are appointed by the President of the United
States, and the Auditor and Treasurer are chosen un-
der territorial authority. The Legislative Assembly
consists of a Council and House of Representatives,
and convenes annually on the first Monday in Decem-
ber. The Council is composed of nine members,
elected for three years, and the House of Representa-
tives is composed of thirty members, elected for one
year. The judicial power of the territory is vested in
a Supreme Court, District Courts and Justices of the
Peace. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Jus-
tice and two Associate Justices, who hold their offices
during a term of four years. One term of the Su-
preme Court is held annually at the seat of govern-
ment. For District Court purposes, the territory is
divided into three judicial districts, in each of which
the Justices of the Supreme Court hold the sessions.
For each of these districts a territorial Prosecuting At-
torney is elected by the people for a term of two
years.

Wyoming.

20. — This Territory lies southwest of Dakota, and
like all the other territories of the far west it is rich in
mineral treasures. The Governor and Secretary are
appointed by the President of the United States for
four years. The Legislative Assembly consists of a

Council of nine members and a House of Representatives of thirteen members.

21.—The judicial power is vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, Probate Courts and Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice and two Associate Justices, any two of whom constitute a quorum, and who hold a term at the seat of government annually. They are appointed by the President of the United States for four years. The territory is divided into three judicial districts, and in each of them a district court is held by one of the Justices of the Supreme Court.

XV. THE CONFEDERATE STATES.

1861 to 1865.

1.—BASIS OF ACTION. Strictly speaking, the Federal Union of these states is a Confederacy; but when the Confederate States are mentioned, the Southern Confederacy is understood. Shortly after the Constitution had been adopted in the last century, there were indications that some of the men who were firmest for Union held views as to state rights, which, if carried to their logical results, would have endangered or destroyed the United States. There may have been, on the part of some of the men who ratified the Constitution, a reserved thought that the Union should endure only as long as certain individual ends could be served, but no such right was expressly reserved under the Constitution framed in 1787, and subsequently ratified by all the states. The aim of the framers of the Constitution was to make a strong government, because the articles of the Confederation had left to the General Government only an advisory power, in effect, without executive capacity to enforce a decision. That fault could not have been remedied by a constitution that would leave to every individual state the right to retire at any moment. There would have been in the autonomy of the states such powers of disintegration, that Union must have been a name

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without a meaning, and the Federal compact would have had the strength of a rope of sand.

2.—KENTUCKY AND VIRGINIA in 1798 and 1799 adopted resolutions, supposed to have been formulated, the first by Thomas Jefferson, afterwards President, and then Secretary of State in Washington's administration; the second by James Madison, afterwards President and in the intermediate term Secretary of State in Jefferson's administration; but the resolutions did not go beyond asserting an uncertain and ill defined right of nullification; and neither of the statesmen mentioned advocated such action in their official characters as the resolutions implied. Such resolutions could not be of value as against the constitution already ratified, except in so far as they might tend to illustrate the intentions of the parties to that compact.

3.—JOSIAH QUINCY of Boston, when opposing the Louisiana purchase, which he condemned as unconstitutional, said in the House of Representatives, that such an act dissolved the Union virtually; but the practical advantages of Union were stronger than the subtleties of logic, and his statement led to nothing. There was an approach toward the same sentiment in the Federalist party during the war with England in 1812-15, which at length found utterance in the Hartford Convention, at the time that the war was being ended by negotiations at Ghent, and the effect of the convention was to destroy the influence of the Federal party as well as of its prominent men in any combination afterwards made. Public opinion, sound to the core, had no tolerance for views that endangered the public safety, and that fact testified to what was meant by the Constitution.

4.—THE MISSOURI COMPROMISE in 1820 was made the occasion for the South to threaten secession, when the North objected to the admission of the new State, unless there were stringent limitations placed upon the slave power. Again, there was a threat of nul-

lification in 1828 from South Carolina, when the Protective Tariff of that date was enacted, and in 1832 there was an attempt to carry the menace into effect; but as we have seen, the then President, Gen. Jackson, emphatically a man of action, responded by sending troops to enforce the law, while justifying himself in his course by the publication of a masterly statement. Henry Clay came to the rescue with a compromise measure and a collision was avoided, but there can be no doubt as to the result, had the policy of nullification been maintained. There was no such sentiment on the tariff, as would have called forth cooperative southern effort in civil war, and the General would have stamped out the small beginning without hesitation. There had been no recognition of the asserted right to secede, but there was a considerable party that claimed to have reserved the power to be used whenever the circumstances warranted its exercise in the last resort.

5. — NEGRO SLAVERY, once general in the colonies, but now partially repudiated in the states, afforded the ground upon which the secession issue could be tried. The South claimed that the North had abandoned slavery only because it did not pay, and therefore there could be no reason for its being bound by an example that did not apply in the circumstances of the south, where it was believed by nearly the whole population that negro labor must be used, and could only be availed of profitably in the form of slavery. Really the North had abandoned the domestic institution on two grounds, not inconsistent with each other; 1st. That slavery is a wasteful system not conducive to material prosperity; and, 2d. On the higher plane, because it was wrong in the sight of God for one man to hold another in bondage, except as a punishment for wrong doing. With the growth of popular intelligence, and more especially with the preponderance of conscience in the development of public opinion, those views had been silently spreading among the masses.

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The higher plane had been reached by but few men, the lower had been realized by many; hence, the Abolitionists were treated as zealots who wanted to carry things to extremes, beyond the line of interference, warranted by the constitution. Just at that point there was safety for the slave owners, if they had kept within the written law and their rights of property, however repugnant to the higher law, would have commanded observance; but the necessities of their condition demanded a system of continuous aggressions, until men like Abraham Lincoln, able to appreciate the legal and social aspect of the whole question, without being carried away by the glamour of misleading zeal, were compelled to see that the whole Union must become subject to the slave system unless the system could be entirely erased. That idea was slowly becoming a dispassionate conviction in many minds.

6. — EVERY NEW TERRITORY that was to be organized, and every state that sought admission, was scanned narrowly by leaders of public opinion north and south, with a jealous fear that one or the other might be securing additional power in the Union. The debates in 1819-20, temporarily ended by the Missouri Compromise, did not set the question at rest; it was seething continually in the minds of the community. The compromise of 1820 hardly postponed the evil day, and the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, the organic act for the two territories since admitted as Free States, precipitated the event which it was intended to postpone or avert. The question which might have been settled by Congress without riot or confusion was sent to be fought out in the territory, among men who became more and more embittered every day, and whose battles were watched with angry solicitude before long by the contending factions north and south.

7. — STEPHEN A. DOUGLAS with matchless power tried to hold in leash the two arms of the Democracy north and south. Giving all that he dared to the South,

he was arrested at Squatter Sovereignty by public opinion in his own party at the North, and he could not go farther without sacrificing all claim on their regard, yet the South, finding that Squatter Sovereignty failed to give them Kansas, demanded impossible concessions from the great leader, and when he could advance no longer upon their line, repudiated him to seek their fortune at the cannon's mouth. That act of repudiation threw away their last chance of success. Going solid for Douglas, they could have elected the successor to Buchanan, but divided in their rage between Breckenridge and the great leader, they permitted the still greater man, Lincoln, upon whom they had no claim whatever, to occupy the position in which he became, without one effort on his own part to misuse the powers entrusted to his administration, the instrument in the hands of God to bring human laws into accord with the divine ordinances.

8. — ABRAHAM LINCOLN'S ELECTION in November, 1860, was the signal for secession, because it was known that there would be no favor exhibited by him for their schemes of slavery extension. He had announced clearly enough that slavery must be protected where it already had a foothold; but that there must be no extension. They had long since concluded that every man who had not taken hold with the proslavery party, was at heart an abolitionist; therefore they feared Lincoln unduly; but on the other hand they were well aware of the fact that slavery must fail unless they had at their disposal an always increasing territory in which to dispose of their human stock.

9. — SOUTH CAROLINA led off in the dance of death. The legislature in that state was sitting, and a convention was called for December 20, which duly answered the summons by an ordinance, declaring that state no longer in the Union. Seven states had taken that step before March 4th, 1861, when Lincoln was solemnly inaugurated. There was wisdom in taking time by the forelock, as the safety with which the

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seceding states could enact their ordinances, while Buchanan remained in office, could not fail to produce an effect on the other states, and might overawe the new executive by the array of power thus rendered possible. Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Florida, Louisiana and Texas, were not unanimous for the new departure, but they were carried at that epoch, and it is tolerably certain that if the President at that time had been other than Buchanan, the vote in each state would have showed different results. South Carolina was the only state that was really strong on the debatable ground. Eight slave states were urged to secede, and refused concurrence in that policy. There were in the states named, 4,968,994 people, of whom there were 2,312,046 slaves, or nearly one-half the entire population. Among the white populations of the seceding states, there were very large minorities that condemned secession, and had voted against it, with all their might. Some even of the slave owners were emphatic in their denunciation of the error; Alexander H. Stephens, afterwards Vice President of the Confederacy, was one of that class; consequently the number of men that determined to withdraw themselves and a vast area of territory from the Union was altogether disproportioned to the purpose which had been resolved upon, in the conventions of the seven states.

10.—MONTGOMERY, ALA., was nominated as the proper point for the assembly of a convention of delegates, to settle the terms of the confederacy, and February 4th, 1861, one month before the inauguration of the new President, was the date fixed for the first meeting. The convention copied the constitution of the Union with one variation only, the right to carry slaves as property from one state to another without voiding proprietary rights. There was a *pro tem.* appointment of officers, but eventually the same men were elected to the higher offices for six years; Jefferson Davis and Mr. Stephens being President and Vice President. Montgomery remained the capital of the

Confederacy until Virginia came into the coalition at a later date.

11. — WAR, NOT DECLARED, but actual commenced on the side of the Confederacy as soon as the government was formed. The largest Federal force under one command was at Indianola, Texas, under Gen. Twiggs, and he, waiting only for the appearance of a hostile force, surrendered, with all his material, to the confederates, on the 18th of February. Smaller forces on the frontiers were captured, with or without complicity, and with them came arms and ammunition. The officers were doubtless aware that any show of defense would be unsatisfactory to President Buchanan and his advisers. At New Orleans the sub-treasury, with half a million of dollars, was treated as spoils captured from an enemy, and many fortresses and vessels, wherever convenient, were taken for confederate use and occupation. The movements of the general government for years had been under the direction of the men who were now gathering in a harvest of their own planting, and the chief executive looked on without practical remonstrance, if not with actual approbation. In some lawless minds there were also ideas of assassination, that aimed at the prevention of the new President assuming his duties on the 4th of March, 1861.

12. — PRESIDENT LINCOLN, contrary to the desires of his enemies, was inaugurated, but some time elapsed before he commenced hostilities. It was necessary to know first how much of the public service could be relied upon, and next, the temper of the people had to be consulted. Fort Sumter, repeatedly menaced, held out for the Union, with a force of only seventy men, a peace garrison. Reinforcements and supplies sent by Buchanan in an unarmed vessel, had been driven back by Confederate guns, taken from the Union; and the Chief Executive exhibited no resentment. Lincoln ordered the necessary measures of relief, and it was evident that the era of peaceful submission on the side of the United States had come to an end. Before re-

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inforcements and supplies could arrive, fire was opened on Fort Sumter, from many batteries, erected for the purpose, and the war challenged the attention of the Union on the 12th of April. The reduction of the fort was effected in thirty-six hours. This action was the express result of orders, many times repeated, from Jefferson Davis, who was at that time Chairman of the Congressional Committee on Defenses, as well as President of the seceding Confederacy.

13. — THE NORTH RESPONDED with intense indignation, which left no doubt as to the war feeling. Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers, and Stephen A. Douglas, better informed as to the crisis, urged him to call for 500,000. The larger number would have been equipped just as readily as the smaller. The people were thoroughly aroused, and those who had heretofore championed the South were silenced by the audacity of the Sumter outrage. The President was determined "to repossess the forts, places and property siezed from the Union," but public opinion breathed war for the insulted flag. The patience exhibited by Lincoln was justified by the result. The call to arms was indignantly repudiated by North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri and Arkansas. Virginia passed a secession ordinance, followed by North Carolina, Tennessee and Arkansas at brief intervals. Delaware and Maryland were not inclined to aid the General Government, and in Missouri, the Governor not being able to pass an ordinance of secession, commenced war on his own account. The Confederacy, when arrived at its full development, covered about one-half the inhabited area of the United States, carrying with it about one-third of the population, if we leave out of sight the fact, that great minorities in the eleven revolted states clung to the Union. Still there were minorities in the rest of the Union favorable to the Confederacy. The difference was as two to one, with wealth and business capacity on the Union side; training, military skill and settled plan of action on the

other. Republicans were strangers at Annapolis and at Westpoint, as subsequent events were to prove.

14. — PRESIDENT DAVIS was in command of 100,000 men, that number having been authorized by the Confederate Congress two days after the inauguration of President Lincoln. It was significant that the order had been delayed until then, as it seemed as though the Confederacy had hoped something would happen to prevent his coming into power at the proper time. The Confederacy assumed possession of all places and properties seized from the Union, and commissioners were sent to Washington to arrange the terms of secession. Duties were being collected on shipments from Union states, and arrangements were already made to seize Fort Sumter: yet the commissioners from Montgomery complained of want of frankness on the part of Mr. Seward, Secretary of State for the Union. Sumter was taken, the North was aroused, Lincoln called for volunteers, and Davis, as if surprised at such action, accepting that proclamation as a declaration of war, authorized at that time, May 17, reprisals against the commerce of the United States. His call for troops had specified 100,000, and had dated from March 6. There was enthusiasm on the side of the South as well as angry energy in the North. When a loan of \$5,000,000 was advertised at Montgomery, it was answered by a subscription of \$8,000,000. There were 35,000 men in arms under Davis before the close of April, and 10,000 were dispatched towards the North. The Congress adjourned on the 21st of May, having sat less than one month in Montgomery, to reassemble in Richmond, Va., in July. The new government meant to quarter on the enemy, as all debts due to the North were sequestrated, orders being made that such sums should be paid into the Confederate treasury. Practically no doubt, the result was as anticipated, in the end; but immediately the debtors kept the money in their own hands, as the amounts were not paid to one side nor the other. In Missouri a force collected at

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Booneville under Gov. Claiborne Jackson's orders, commanded by Col. Marmaduke and intended to co-operate with the Confederate armies — although Missouri had refused to secede — was attacked by Capt. Lyon, the camp carried, 2,500 men driven in confusion, and an immense quantity of clothing, camp equipage, guns and ammunition captured for the Union, on the 16th of June, 1861. Claiborne Jackson fled from Missouri, and the state, almost evenly divided, adhered to the Union. Kentucky and Missouri were nominally represented in the Confederate Congress, but the states were not secessionist, although they, with Maryland, sent large reinforcements repeatedly to the armies under Davis. The openly seceding states were Virginia — bating Western Virginia — North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Florida, Tennessee, Arkansas, Texas and Louisiana, eleven states out of thirty-four.

15. — WAR MEASURES became stringent within the Confederate boundaries in August. All male citizens over fourteen years old were compelled by law and proclamation on and after the 14th to swear allegiance or quit within forty days, on pain of imprisonment. A Confederate privateer having been captured and her crew treated as criminals, being held for trial, Davis, by proclamation, threatened reprisals on prisoners held by him, and in consequence such prisoners were thenceforth allowed the same treatment as ordinary prisoners of war. Soon afterwards the practice of exchanging prisoners of war was initiated and continued through the war; but belligerent Unionists residing in the seceding states were punished as traitors.

16. — THE CIVIL WAR DURING 1861 was mainly advantageous to the Confederate arms. The North, taken by surprise, her ships beforehand sent to distant seas by traitorous officials, her arsenals undefended, her material of war massed in the south for easy capture, her troops scattered where they were powerless, or could be corrupted, had to begin under Lincoln,

after Sumter had been captured, the work of preparation for the greatest civil war ever known; hence, the armies sent into the field were raw levies, to a large extent, officered by men without military experience. Norfolk Navy Yard and four vessels were captured, including the Merrimac, afterwards razed and converted into the ironclad ram Virginia, so destructive to our ships before she came into contact with Ericsson's Monitor. There fell into the Confederate hands at that time, without firing a shot, 2,000 cannon, besides small arms and munitions of immense value, although there were officers in charge whose duty it was, with ample means at their disposal, to defend the property of the Union. This capture was made on the 20th of April, the eighth day after the fall of Sumter, and on the day before the affair at Norfolk, a mob in the streets of Baltimore had attacked the Sixth Massachusetts Regiment, marching to Washington. The mob held Baltimore until May 13th, when Butler came with 900 men and took possession of the city. The affair at Big Bethel was a Confederate victory, and Davis could send an army to overpower Western Virginia, which was only protected by McClellan, and his victories at Philippi, Rich Mountain, Laurel Hill and Carrick's Ford, from the 2d of June to the 12th of July, followed by the indecisive actions under Rosecrans at Carnifax Ferry, Cheat Mountain and Alleghany Summit. Eastern Virginia, the old state, was the scene of a battle at Manassas Junction, where the Union arms sustained a severe defeat on the 21st of June, and might have been almost annihilated, although there were as many Union troops within the sounds of the cannonade, only listening to the guns, as were actually under fire. The defeat at Ball's Bluff was but a small affair, but the death of Gen. Baker was a great loss to the Union. The defeat for the Confederate arms at Dranesville was but a trivial repulse, and the operations of the Army of the Potomac for 1861 are all recorded. On the coast the Confed-

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work of preparation; hence, the levies, to a large military experience. They were captured, razed and consumed, so destructive contact with Ericsson's hands, 2,000 cannon, of immense value, whose duty it was, to defend the city. The fall of Sumter, at Norfolk, a mob in the Sixth Massachusetts. The city, when Butler's capture of the city, a Confederate victory, the power Western Virginia, McClellan, and the 12th of the 19th of January, under Rosecrans and Allen, the old state, was on the 21st of the 19th of January, annihilated, all troops within the city, as at Ball's Bluff of Gen. Baker's defeat for the but a trivial result of the Potomac against the Confederacy.

eracy suffered losses by the capture of Forts Hatteras and Clark, Port Royal, Hilton Head and Phillips' Island, with the sea islands adjoining, but Savannah and Charleston were protected. Missouri was for some time the scene of Confederate successes, under Gov. C. F. Jackson, although the state declared Jackson a traitor, and vacated his office. Lyon, who captured Jackson's force at Boonville, June 16th, fell mortally wounded in an engagement at Wilson's Creek, and Col. Mulligan, with a force of nearly 3,000 men, was compelled to surrender on the 20th of September. Fremont was routing the Confederates with an army of 30,000 men, when he was superseded, and his successor abandoned Southern Missouri. Grant, after much delay, had been sent into service with a small command, and he achieved a temporary success at Belmont, but eventually had to retire in good order, with guns and prisoners captured by him, before large reinforcements. Col. Jefferson C. Davis surprised and captured a Confederate camp at Millford. Thus the campaign of the first year was in the main favorable to the arms and designs of the Confederacy.

17.—The operations of 1862 opened more successfully for the North. General George H. Thomas, on the 19th of January, defeated a Confederate force under Crittenden and drove that army across the Cumberland with great loss in men, arms, horses and guns, making a great diversion in Southern Kentucky. Grant and Foote reduced Forts Henry and Donelson, with large results in prisoners, guns and reputation, besides which the camp at Bowling Green, Ky., Nashville, and all Northern Tennessee, fell under the control of Union forces; which were able to move upon Corinth, having proceeded up the Tennessee to Savannah and Pittsburg Landing. Paducah and Columbus were lost by the South, a force was driven from New Madrid with heavy losses, and Macon, with 6,700 men, 7,000 small arms and 123 cannon, surrendered. The Confederate Flotilla at Memphis was routed and

Memphis surrendered to Commodore Foote, and before the end of June Vicksburg alone, on the Mississippi, resisted the attacks of the Federal forces. The surprise of Grant's camp at Pittsburg Landing, while that officer was at Savannah and waiting to be reinforced by Buell, would have been a Confederate victory but for the second day's fighting, in which, Grant having returned on the evening before, the Confederate force under Beauregard was driven beyond the camp which had been surprised at the commencement of the assault, and was eventually obliged to evacuate Corinth. Some towns on the Tennessee were also taken, but Chattanooga held out against all assaults.

18.—NEW MEXICO was occupied by a small force of Union Regulars, and there were unsuccessful attempts to carry them over to the Confederacy, but the soldiers, true to their flag, were then betrayed by the officer in command into a position where surrender was inevitable. There were some comparatively unimportant operations in that territory in 1861 and 1862, as all the resources of that region would not feed the Confederate force employed on the service, and the small remains of an army returned with much suffering from the capital of New Mexico to Texas. Indian allies were procured by the Confederacy, as the result of much negotiation; but the parties to the compact, mutually disgusted, sundered the alliance speedily. The power of the Indians to consume rations was exhibited with startling effect, when Gen. Pike brought a brigade of scalpers to reinforce Price at Boston Mountain, Arkansas, and 5,000 Indians fought near Bentonville under Van Dorn, who superseded Price, where 10,500 Federals compelled 21,000 Confederates to retreat after two days hard fighting. The movements of Curtis, after that victory, allowed the Confederates to operate in Missouri once more with many petty successes achieved over small bodies of Union troops; but eventually they were driven into Arkansas, where a desperately contested battle was fought

Foot, and before the Mississippi, forces. The sur- Landing, while iting to be rein- Confederate vic- in which, Grant re, the Confeder- ven beyond the e commencement igned to evacuate essee were also inst all assaults. by a small force unsuccessful at- federacy, but the betrayed by the where surrender comparatively un- n 1861 and 1862, uld not feed the service, and the ith much suffer- Texas. Indian acy, as the result s to the compact, llance speedily. e rations was ex- en. Pike brought Price at Boston ans fought near uperseded Price, 000 Confederates ing. The move- llowed the Con- more with many bodies of Union ven into Arkan- attle was fought

on the 7th of December, at Fayetteville, as the result of which the Confederates again retreated after suffering severe losses.

19.—ROANOKE ISLAND, NEWBERN, two steam-boats, and sixty-nine cannon, were part of the Confederate losses this year, and Fort Macon also fell after being invested. Washington, Plymouth and other ports in North Carolina surrendered, the Union forces were repulsed at South Mills and Goldsboro. Gen. Butler, with a land force cooperating with Commodore Farragut and a naval force, carried out a brilliant attack on New Orleans, which was completely successful, the result being disastrous to the Confederate arms, and especially glorious for Farragut and the naval arm of the service. Carrollton was set on fire and deserted, the gunboats massed at New Orleans captured or routed, the forts taken and Butler remained to govern the captured city with great energy until December 16th. All the towns on the Mississippi, below Vicksburg, were captured by this expedition. Baton Rouge was assailed by a Confederate force on the 5th of August, but the attempt was a signal failure and a large part of Louisiana was possessed by the Federals.

20.—GEN. McCLELLAN had a force of about 200,000 men under his command during the winter of 1861-62, but the army of the Potomac remained inactive until February 22d, when it was moved to Manassas Junction, under express orders from President Lincoln. The Confederates retired from that position as soon as he approached. Transferring his army by water to Fortress Monroe, McClellan now menaced Richmond along the Peninsula. Stonewall Jackson sustained a defeat at Kernstown, losing 1,000 men, his opponent, Gen. Shields, suffering much less. The career of the Merrimack, now the Virginia Ram, in Hampton Roads, was cut short by the arrival of the Monitor just before McClellan reached the James River. This affair happened on the 8th and 9th of

March, and the Virginia was never in action afterwards, having been destroyed by the Confederates when Norfolk navy yard was abandoned. McClellan following 58,000 of his army with as many more to follow him, arrived at Fortress Monroe April 2d, but his advance was stopped near Yorktown by Magruder, who held a line thirteen miles long for thirty days with 11,000 men against the army of the Potomac; retreating then as there were breaching batteries ready to open on his works. McClellan reached the Chickahominy May 20th. There had been much hard fighting against inferior forces and the advance caused the abandonment of Norfolk with the navy yard and 200 guns. McClellan now halted once more and fortified his position. The brilliant operations of Stonewall Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley were the brightest features in the Confederate record, as with a small force he repeatedly attacked and defeated the different Union commanders with whom he collided, having in the aggregate about 70,000 troops, caused serious alarm in Washington and prejudicially affected the campaign of McClellan. Lee was now in command of the army at Richmond, and Jackson was placed under his orders.

21. — BATTLE OF FAIR OAKS. There had been many petty operations and many of considerable importance before this battle, but the fortunes of McClellan turned upon this action which commenced on the 28th of May, by an attack under Gen. Jos. E. Johnston's orders. Johnston was disabled by a shell, and for many months was unable to resume. It was in consequence of that fact that Gen. Lee was called to the chief command at Richmond. The advantages gained by the Confederates in the beginning of the battle were neutralized after the fall of their commander, and at the close of the day when the attacking force drew off, there was no considerable gain on either side. There was some fighting next day, but nothing worthy of particular mention, except an ap-

in action after the Confederates were repulsed. McClellan sent as many more troops as he could on April 2d, but they were repulsed by Magruder, and for thirty days the army of the Potomac; the batteries ready to attack the Chickahominy had been much hard by the advance caused by the navy yard and once more and the operations of the army in the Valley were the same as with a new army, and defeated the army with which he collided, 100,000 troops, caused a great loss of men, and the army now in command of Lee was placed

There had been a considerable increase in the fortunes of McClellan, which commenced on the day when Gen. Jos. E. Johnston was disabled by a shell, and he resumed his command. Lee was called on to resume his command. The advantages of the beginning of the campaign of their command when the attack was made, a considerable gain on the next day, but on the next day, except an ap-

proach within four miles of Richmond by Hooker, but he was recalled to Fair Oaks, and McClellan did nothing for one month, during which time Gen. Lee made his arrangements at his leisure, called in Jackson and other reinforcements, to enable him to cope with the army of 156,828 men under the Union command; and generally made himself master of the situation. When Lee was quite ready on the 26th of June, Mechanicsville was the scene of operations, and after Hill had sustained a repulse from the Federals, Porter was ordered to fall back to Gaines' Mill, where he was defeated, with a loss of 19 guns and 8,000 men. McClellan's base of supplies at West Point having been captured, that General now ordered a retreat to the James River. Every day had its battle and every night its march, until that river was reached, when the troops concentrated on Malvern Hill, and supported by gunboats on the river, fought successfully one of the bloodiest battles of the war; the Confederates being repulsed at every point, with a loss of about 10,000 men. The losses on both sides were very severe during the campaign, from the arrival of McClellan on the Chickahominy to his return to the James at Harrison's Landing, and there was nothing to show on the Union side as an offset to the loss in blood and treasure. The Confederates, with inferior forces, had practically defeated and driven off the army to the Potomac.

22.—GEN. POPE'S COMMAND of 50,000, charged with the defense of Washington, was severely handled in detail by the Confederates at Cedar Mountain, on the 9th of August, and at many minor points, until the main body suffered a terrible repulse at Manassas Junction on the 29th. It is claimed that the second misadventure at Bull Run was largely due to McClellan having failed to support Pope. The battle was continued on the 30th without advantage to the Union arms, and Pope retiring to the Potomac resigned his command. The Union had lost 25,000 in

this disastrous campaign, including many officers of distinguished merit. McClellan was once more Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the Potomac.

23. — GEN. LEE advanced into Maryland September 8, McClellan following upon his right wing; but as if Lee knew that there was nothing to fear from the dash of his opponent, he at that time detached Jackson to capture Harper's Ferry and a force of 12,000 men under Col. Miles. There were several slight engagements in the following days, but the battle of Antietam, which should have destroyed Lee before Stonewall Jackson could rejoin him, was not fought until September 17th, when Jackson, after taking Harper's Ferry, was able to assist Lee in resisting the Union forces. The Union force engaged was 87,000; the Confederates 70,000, and the battle was one of the most destructive in the war. Many regiments lost half their number, and at night, when the advantage was inclining to the side of the Union, Lee was allowed to escape unmolested. McClellan was relieved of his command on the 7th of November.

24. — GEN. BURNSIDE the successor to McClellan, distinguished himself by his operations before Fredericksburg, where thousands of men were wounded and slaughtered before a stone wall defended by picked troops, so posted that it was impossible to effect their dislodgment. On the 28th of January, 1863, Burnside was relieved from the command.

25. — GEN. HALLECK, in command of the armies of Grant and Buell after Pittsburg Landing, did nothing worthy of note after the capture of Corinth, and on the whole there was a decided gain for the Confederates in the partisan war that prevailed for some months in Tennessee. Gen. Bragg with 45,000 men, in June, crossed the Tennessee near Chattanooga, and striking boldly through the state, with many minor successes, entered Kentucky where he had the satisfaction to capture Mumfordsville, and to throw Cincinnati and Louisville into great trepidation. Buell was on Bragg's

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tracks with 100,000 men, but he distrusted the effective-
ness of his troops, most of them raw levies, and
no action was attempted by him until his left wing
was struck by Bragg's force, on the 9th of October,
near Harrodsville. The fight commenced at 2 P. M.,
but Buell was not aware of the fact until four o'clock,
and although the losses on the Union side were nearly
twice as great as those on the other, the advantage was
clearly with the Unionists when darkness closed in
upon the combat, and during the night Bragg retreat-
ed towards Tennessee, crossing the Cumberland Moun-
tains before he paused. The result of that engage-
ment seemed to indicate that Buell need not have
feared the capacity of his men to cope with an enemy.

26. — GEN. GRANT was commanding in West Ten-
nessee, having succeeded to that position when Hal-
leck became General in Chief. He devised a scheme
of attack that should have captured Iuka defended by
Gen. Sterling Price, but Rosecrans failed to carry out
the orders given, and in consequence the victory was
incomplete. Price abandoned his position during the
night of September 19th, having sustained a loss of
1,000 men. Grant then directed the fortification of
Corinth, which enabled him to repulse the combined
assaults of Confederate forces for its recovery on the
3d and 4th of October, and on the 5th the battle of
the Hatchie resulted in another success for the arms of
the Union. Van Dorn and Price retreated with precip-
itation.

27. — GEN. ROSECRANS now succeeded Gen. Buell
and the army was known as The Army of the Cum-
berland. The new commander transferred his head
quarters to Nashville and he had now 65,000 men un-
der his control. Rosecrans advanced towards Mur-
freesboro on the 26th of December, where his right was
assailed and routed on the 31st, with great loss of
men and guns, but the center and left stood firm, and
the Confederates did not renew the attack on the 1st
of January, 1863. The battle was renewed on the 2d,

and after hard fighting all day, Bragg evacuated Murfreesboro at night, having suffered very heavily. His losses in the protracted engagement were over 10,000 men. A detachment sent to operate upon Bragg's rear by Rosecrans was surrounded near Rome, Ga., and compelled to surrender. Rosecrans now sat still for several months, until Bragg returned to give him battle, with a change of destiny at Chickamauga.

28. — COMMODORE FOOTE, who was associated with Grant in the capture of Forts Henry and Donelson, in the beginning of the year, swept down the Mississippi from Cairo to Vicksburg, where for a time the arms of the Republic were doomed to endure many repulses; but many successes were achieved by his cooperation with Gen. Pope in Missouri and Gen. Sherman on the Kentucky side. Columbus, Ky., was abandoned on his approach; New Madrid, Mo., and Island No. 10, in the Mississippi, were also taken. Then Memphis and the Confederate Flotilla fell, after which an excursion up the White River resulted in the capture of St. Charles, and a combined attack of the two fleets, that of Farragut combined with that of Foote, upon Vicksburg, which failed to carry the stronghold, was abandoned on the 24th of July. There was a good record for the naval arm of the Union service.

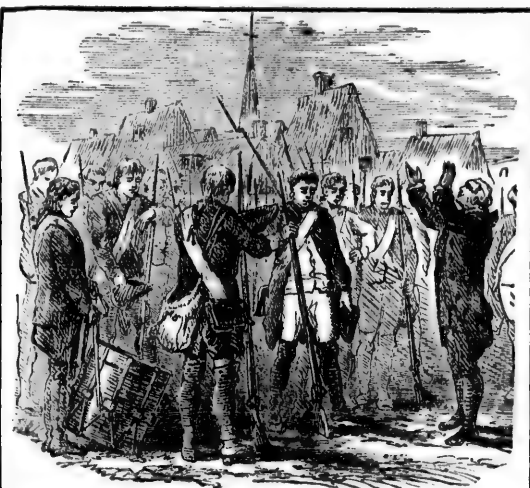
29. — THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY had now been handed over to Grant as the scene of his command, and he had advanced toward Vicksburg about fifty miles, leaving his supplies with a guard of 2,000 men at Holly Springs, under Col. Murphy. Van Dorn came down upon the place, Murphy surrendered the place with his force and himself as prisoners, and the Confederates despoiled Grant of \$4,000,000 worth of stores. Murphy was cashiered, but Grant was forced to abandon his expedition, which was probably the chief object of the attack. Sherman was already on his way to Vicksburg to cooperate with Grant in the attempt to capture the place, and in pursuance of his duty he assailed the batteries commanding Chickasaw

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THE PRAYER BEFORE THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.



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Bayou, on the 22d of December, but partially because of the strength of the works, and still more for want of the combined power that had been relied upon, the attempt had to be abandoned. Gen. McClelland succeeding Sherman, captured Arkansas Post, or Fort Hindman, on the Arkansas River, and the records of the second year of the war have come to an end, with prospects much more cheering for the Union, but without any fatal indications for the Confederate cause.

30.—THE CAMPAIGN OF 1863, opened with the arrival of Grant at Memphis, on the 2d of February, he determined to take Vicksburg. The difficulties in the way were only additional reasons why the place should be taken. Failing to gain the rear of the works by the north, Grant turned to the south, where the obstacles were at least surmountable; and on the 30th of April, ably seconded by Commodore Porter, his army crossed at Bruinsburg, captured Fort Gibson and Grand Gulf, defeating all such forces as were sent to impede his advance, capturing guns and material at all points. The case was becoming critical, and next to Lee, the best man on the Confederate side was dispatched to this command. Gen. Joe. E. Johnston ordered Pemberton to join him with the force that had been employed in defending Vicksburg, and the combined army would have largely outnumbered Grant's command. There was not a moment to spare, and Grant seemed ubiquitous. On the 12th he destroyed a force coming from Jackson to assist Pemberton; on the 14th he captured Jackson and destroyed the efficiency of Johnston's army; turning the same day he struck Pemberton with his main body at Champion Hill, and routed him completely; following him as he attempted to rally on the 17th, he once more defeated him at Black River Bridge, driving him into Vicksburg on the 18th. The indomitable leader attempted at once to carry the fortress by assault. The attempt was repeated on the 19th and 22d of May, but a siege was found to be necessary,

and the place fell on the 4th of July, with great eclat for Union arms and tremendous loss for the Confederates. The Mississippi was entirely in the hands of the United States.

31. — GEN. BANKS who succeeded Gen. Butler in the command at New Orleans, having learned that Galveston had surrendered to four gun boats, sent down a regiment to take possession, and part of that force only had landed when Gen. Magruder commanding the Confederate forces in Texas, attacked the Union fleet in the harbor, sank one vessel, captured another, and compelled the troops to surrender. Other operations of a like description made the Confederate cause a winning side in Texas. Banks with a force nominally of 30,000 men, but hardly 14,000 effectives, so great were the losses from sickness and desertion, captured Alexandria and besieged Port Hudson, but the garrison would have continued its resistance but for the news of the failure to hold Vicksburg, upon being convinced of which, Gen. Gardener surrendered the Port and 6,408. The effectives under Banks that day only numbered about 10,000, and he had captured during his operations 10,584 men, 73 guns and 6,000 stand of arms. The operations of the force under Banks in Texas were not of a character to affect the general issue, but generally his expeditions were a trifle late or too early, too strong or not strong enough, and he is more to be remembered for the places that he failed to take than for the captures recorded to his honor. Brazos Santiago, Brownville, Aransas Pass, and Fort Esperanza on Matagorda Bay, were among his prizes, but there was hardly any force in opposition, and there was scarcely any military value in their possession. In the spring of 1864, Shreveport was taken and Gen. Price was outnumbered and routed. Banks should have cooperated with the fleet by an advance beyond Alexandria, March 1, 1864; he barely reached the place on the 16th and then could go no further until April first. His movements beyond that point

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Roads, at Pleasant Grove, at Dean's Bayou, at Man-
sura and at Yellow Bayou. One gunboat had to be
blown up to prevent capture by the Confederates,
three were captured and one was burned. The force
from Little Rock, which was to cooperate with Banks
if he had come to time, was exposed to imminent
peril in consequence of his failure, but Gen. Steele
succeeded in bringing off his main body without ma-
terial disaster, and Arkansas remained Unionist in the
northeastern half, Confederate in the other to the end
of the war.

32.—ROSECRANS IN TENNESSEE enjoyed a period
of repose from the beginning of January until the
24th of June, 1863, when he advanced from Murfrees-
boro to Shelbyville, taking a few guns and a few hun-
dred prisoners. Bragg retreated before him with lit-
tle loss. Chattanooga was evacuated, and everything
conspired to beget a false confidence in the Union
general, when Bragg reinforced by Longstreet's corps
from Virginia, turned upon him suddenly with a force
about equal to his own, something near 55,000 men.
The battle of Chickamauga was thus commenced un-
der heavy disadvantages, but the first day, Sept. 19th,
passed without any marked disaster. On the 20th,
Rosecrans' right was completely shattered by Long-
street and with part of the center was swept from the
field, Rosecrans going with the flying troops to Chat-
tanooga. Gen. Thomas holding the left, stood unmov-
all that day, repelling all attacks until the Confeder-
ates drew off. "The Rock of Chickamauga" occu-
pied his post all day on the 21st, and when night came,
retired to the position assigned him by Rosecrans in
front of Chickamauga. Rosecrans held Chattanooga
until orders arrived for him to hand over his com-
mand to Gen. Thomas. The Garrison suffered tre-
mendously before aid could be forwarded, but there
was relief of a very effective sort on the way, such as

would terminate southern pretensions in that quarter for some time.

33.— GEN. GRANT was sent to assume the command in chief in this region, Sherman being ordered up from Vicksburg to serve under him, and Hooker, with two corps from the army of the Potomac. Supplies were the first necessity, and Hooker was intrusted with the duty of clearing the river Tennessee so that the starving soldiery might be saved from absolute famine. The commissariat thus cared for, the next desire was to reach the point of danger before any further mishap could occur. Grant, now a Major General in the regular army, and in command of all the forces in the valley of the Mississippi, had vast responsibilities upon him, but he was equal to the emergency. He was before Chattanooga on the 23d of October, and on the 27th the battle of Lookout Valley was fought under his direction, after which there were supplies for the army before the city in which Rosecrans had been shut up. Sherman came by forced marches ready for any duty on the 15th of November, and as soon as his arrangements were completed, Grant's Fourth corps moved out directly in front of Chattanooga, seizing the Confederate outposts before they dreamed that they were in danger, on the 22d of November. Bragg was still on Lookout Mountain looking down into Chattanooga and occupying a position assumed to be impregnable. The battle of Chattanooga commenced on the 23d at two in the afternoon by an attack on the Confederate left, gallantly executed by Gen. Thomas. The rifle pits were carried and held during the night. Morning, on the 24th, found the battle renewed along the whole line. Sherman carried the end of Missionary Ridge near the railroad tunnel, and Thomas, strengthened in his post, repelled every effort of the Confederates near the center, while Hooker, against odds that were simply terrific, had made a lodgment on Lookout Mountain, in which he was so strong, that during the night the

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Confederates abandoned that position entirely. Dawn, on the 25th, found the men again ready for their work on both sides, but the burden of a manifest destiny loaded down the Confederates. All through that day the battle raged, the charge up Missionary Ridge being one of the handsomest sights ever presented by actual war, and it was almost dark when the work was ended. Bragg's army was routed beyond rallying. The Chattanooga rifle pits, Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain top were successively won and held with perseverance and valor never surpassed. The losses on the Union side were about 6,000 all told, while the Confederates lost 6,000 in prisoners alone, forty pieces of artillery and thousands of small arms. Sherman and Hooker, leaving nothing to chance, followed the fugitives almost as rapidly as they fled, and when, on the 27th, there was a stand made at Taylor's Ridge, near Ringgold, Georgia, another fight, short and desperate, made an end of that effort.

34. — GEN. BURNSIDE was no sooner relieved of the too weighty responsibility of the command of the Army of the Potomac, than he was transferred to the command of the department of Ohio, where he achieved successes against Morgan's Raiders, compelled Gen. Frazer to surrender the almost impregnable position of Cumberland Gap, and continued in charge of East Tennessee, distinguishing himself in several actions, until after the defeat of Rosecrans at Chickamauga, Longstreet with a superior force drove him into Knoxville. Burnside defended Knoxville against the force under Longstreet until it became possible for Grant to dispatch Sherman to his relief. The day before Sherman's arrival a desperate onslaught was made by Longstreet in the hope that he might carry the town before relief could reach the defenders, but the repulse was complete, and the retreat was made just in time to escape the relieving force. After that event Burnside was engaged in the terrible campaign between Grant and Lee in Virginia.

35. — GEN. HOOKER, one of the best fighting men on the Union side, whom we have just seen in the brilliant campaign under Grant, relieved Burnside of the command of the Army of the Potomac in January, 1863, when the desertions averaged over 200 per day, and demoralization had reached its depth in consequence of the disastrous failure at Fredericksburg; and two months were spent in giving tone and efficiency to his force, before it was possible to recommence offensive operations. The affair at Chancellorsville, in which Stonewall Jackson fell mortally wounded, extinguished the eleventh corps of Hooker's army, the right being taken in the rear while at supper, by Jackson with 25,000 men, whose impetuous daring could not be resisted. In the battle of the next day Hooker was injured by a cannon ball striking a post against which he was leaning, so that he was unable to direct operations, or to carry out the plans already laid; consequently he found it necessary to recross the Rappahannock after many days hard fighting in which he had lost about 18,000 men, but in which it is probable that the Confederate loss was nearly as great as his own. While Hooker was planning a movement to flank Gen. Lee, that officer executed a similar design against the Union army by Culpepper Court House into the Shenandoah Valley and across the Potomac, so that by the 25th of June, Lee's army had all crossed the Potomac and were advancing into Pennsylvania over 100,000 strong. Hooker had followed this daring movement with proper care, and succeeded in deflecting Lee from his proposed line of march; but in consequence of a dispute with Halleck, his superior officer, on his demand for 10,000 additional troops from Maryland Heights, his resignation was accepted a few days before the battle of Gettysburg; but it is claimed that the glory of that action is largely due to the services previously rendered by Hooker, and Congress gave him special thanks. The battle of Gettysburg was fought under

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Gen. Meade on the Union side, Gen. Lee in person commanding the Confederate forces. July commenced with the preliminary skirmishing of this terrible three days fighting, which cost the Union 24,000 men, and the Confederate cause at least 36,000; and on the anniversary of our Independence, the Southern force was in full retreat, but allowed to escape by the culpable negligence of Meade, when he should have followed up his dearly bought advantage. The fighting on both sides was very grand, and the result, even in spite of the incompleteness permitted by Meade, was destructive to the chances of the Confederacy. After the defeat sustained by Lee, he retreated to his former position on the Rappahannock, abandoning all ideas for the time of dictating peace in New York or Philadelphia. Meade returned to the old position of the Army of the Potomac on the north bank of the Rappahannock facing Lee, and in that way the campaign of 1863 practically ended, as the partisan skirmishes incidental to the proximity of hostile troops did not affect the welfare of either force; and the proposed attack on Lee at Mire Run after Longstreet had gone into Tennessee, was abandoned by Meade after he had actually crossed the Rapidan.

36.—CHARLESTON continued to be closely blockaded, but every attempt to reduce the forts which constituted the defenses of the city proved abortive during the year. The naval supremacy of the north upon the coast could not be doubted, although the ravages of Confederate cruisers and privateers had almost completely ruined the commerce of the Union. The Confederates had made some gains on the coast, but the successes of the Union forces more than balanced every such advance.

37.—GRANT BEFORE RICHMOND. On the first of March, 1864, Gen. Grant having been made Lieutenant General of the Union armies, there began to be a more immediate prospect of an end to the strife; as the disjointed efforts of the several commanders were now to

give place to designed and connected movements, directed by one brain, and that the most capable, in a military sense, that this age and country have produced. With his customary decision of character, Grant moved toward the scene of action, and it soon became evident that there was a terrible certainty in the operations of the Lieutenant General. A visit to Washington enabled him to see all that was being done in each of the departments, and to direct such changes as were necessary to bring every command into accord with his larger designs. Citizens and the army alike were satisfied that the new commander, who had given proofs of his capacity at Vicksburg, at Chattanooga, and wherever his genius for war was left untrammelled, would render a good account of the whole Confederate force; and many looked for an almost instant succession of victories.

38. — THE WILDERNESS. Grant crossed the Rapidan with the army under Meade, May 4th and 5th, 1864, at Germania and Ely's Fords, striking at once into the Wilderness. Lee was on the watch at a position higher up, but he lost no time in striking at his antagonist. Up to this hour Lee had not found one man his superior at all points, and therefore it was necessary to beat Grant for his own glory as well as for the welfare of the Confederacy. The country through which the Union troops were passing was to them entirely new, but to the Confederate forces altogether familiar. The ground, thickly covered with small trees, favored the operations of an inferior force well acquainted with the locality, against a body numerically superior, but lacking that desirable knowledge of the peculiarities of the position. Two days of desperate slaughter on both sides in the Wilderness came to an end on the evening of the sixth with a dashing attack on Grant's right, but there was no telling advantage for either side. Lee doubtless hoped that his new antagonist would retreat, intimidated by such pertinacity, as others had done before; but Grant

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merely moved on, on the morning of the seventh, towards:

39. — SPOTTSYLVANIA COURT HOUSE. The Union loss had been at least 20,000, but that was a reason for gaining ground rather than retreating. Several days of heavy fighting again, with various success, Lee narrowly escaping capture once on the 11th, only served to illustrate the strength of his position and another 20,000 of the Union forces had disappeared. Lee on the defensive seemed to be invulnerable. Once more moving to the south Grant tried to flank Lee at North Anna, on the 17th, but Lee having the inside track as to roads, was entrenched at that point before his arrival. Butler was to have caused a diversion by seizing Petersburg with 30,000 men, while the main body was thus occupied, but he was confronted by Beauregard and held at bay. The advantages were with the Unionists at North Anna, but to storm the works would have proved so costly in human life that there was another change to Cold Harbor still confronted by Lee, who saw every movement as rapidly as it was conceived. Here a general assault was repulsed with great slaughter, and it became evident that some other road to Richmond must be discovered. Baffled, but not defeated by the south, although the Confederates were really fighting for their last stronghold, Grant was south of Richmond in time to have seized Petersburg but for the momentary indecision of subordinates. Assaults on the 18th and the two following days in June found Lee in full force, and the works for the time impregnable. Movements followed each other in rapid succession, a mine sent 300 Confederates into the air, and thousands of Unionists were lost trying to storm the breach, made by the explosion, in the defenses of Petersburg. The Weldon railroad, attacked at two points, was finally held for the Union by Warren, and numerous small successes were almost counterpoised by repulses in other directions, but Grant was closing in upon his antagonist,

determined to win the point though it should "take all summer." The Army of the Potomac, during 1864, lost 88,387 men, but the end could now be seen, as the greatest general on the Confederate side was barely able to hold his own against Grant, whose resources could be increased without limit, to subdue the always decreasing strength of secession.

40. — WESTERN VIRGINIA had steadily vetoed secession from the first. The Confederacy aiming at suppression met with successes in 1861, until McClellan's army came to the rescue, and at Phillippi, June 3d, routed the invaders, repeating his victories at Rich Mountain and at Carriek's Ford until the last remnant of the force escaped over the Alleghanies. This region was still the region for much fighting, but its loyalty to the Union could never be impeached. Sheridan came into the command in West Virginia soon after Grant had established himself before Richmond, and his career as usual was marked by vigor and general success. He had gone to Washington, leaving his force at Cedar Creek, apparently safe from attack, when Early, defeated just before, but now reinforced, made an assault in the darkness of early morning, October 19th, and drove the force under Crook, a panic stricken mob. Twenty-four guns and 1,200 prisoners had been captured, and the army was demoralized. Sheridan, at Winchester, on his return learned of the disaster, and, within fifteen minutes, he was in the saddle dashing at full speed to retrieve the disaster. By ten in the forenoon he had reached his defeated comrades, and his presence renewed their tone. At noon they repulsed a fresh attack on their left. At three o'clock they began a general advance with small arms only, to confront the artillery of two armies; that brought by Early, and that taken from Crook. Before nightfall they had routed their pursuer, taken his guns, in addition to their own, and with the prestige of this victory, the result of Sheridan's Ride, ended the campaign in West Virginia.

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41.— CONFEDERATE OPERATIONS during 1864, away from the great center, were small and various in fortune. Fort Pillow, Tennessee, was taken by Gen. Forrest, and the garrison, nearly half of whom were negroes, were nearly all killed, part of the slaughter being carried out after resistance had ceased. Sturgis, with a superior force from Memphis, attacking Forrest at Guntown, Miss., was routed with terrible slaughter and loss, and a change of commanders did not result in a defeat of Forrest. East Tennessee and Eastern Kentucky saw Morgan raiding successfully against the Union, until Burbridge destroyed half his force at Mount Sterling, driving the rest into South West Virginia, and was in turn defeated by Breckenridge, near Abingdon.

42.— SHERMAN IN THE WEST, under Grant's orders, advanced from Chattanooga early in May with an army of 100,000. Johnston, his opponent, had 54,000 only, but he stubbornly fought every inch of debatable ground on the road to Atlanta. Resaca, on the 10th of May, Adairsville, Cassville and Allatoona Pass, were all scenes of terrific fighting on both sides; but numbers prevailed, where courage and generalship were equal. Kenesaw Mountain, flanked by Pine and Lost Mountains, cost the Union General several days and much slaughter, but the positions were carried in succession, although one assault cost Sherman 3,000 men, while the Confederates were so strongly posted that they lost only 442. Hood relieved Johnston at Atlanta, and the Confederate losses became much heavier on and after the 20th of July. There were many brilliant cavalry raids on both sides, led by Wheeler for the Confederates, and by Kilpatrick for the Union, the advantage always inclining towards the North, until, as the result of operations at Jonesboro, Hood was compelled to evacuate Atlanta on the last night in August, having destroyed all that was destructible of his stores and munitions. Sherman now gave his army a month to recruit their powers. Hood

tried to recover the post at Allatoona from the Union, but although he fought four men against each one of the defenders, he was bloodily repulsed. There was a demonstration against Resaca, but no assault, because of the nearness of Sherman, and Hood advanced into Middle Tennessee, where Thomas, the hero of Chickamauga, held the state. Sherman gave rest to his army, but like a true general, he sought for himself no rest while duty remained to be accomplished. Two corps were sent to reinforce the Union army at Chattanooga and Nashville, and Sherman prepared for his crowning exploit.

43.—GEN. HOOD, with a Confederate army of 45,000 men, nearly one-fourth cavalry, struck for Nashville, causing immense destruction of Union stores at Johnsonville, Tenn., and increasing his force as he advanced. Thomas had posted 30,000 men to meet Hood at Pulaski, but the army of the Confederates was almost twice that number, and Schofield retreated with the Union force by Columbia to Franklin, where he repulsed the army of Hood with a loss of 4,500 men, losing about half that number himself, but suffering no defeat, nor even the loss of one gun. That night Schofield continued his march to Nashville and was confidently followed by Hood. The weather was terribly severe. It was now the beginning of December, 1864, and Thomas, shut up in Nashville, was in no hurry to move against the intrenchments of the besiegers, until everything was ready. Grant, distant from the scene, was almost angry at the delay; but all was going well for the Confederate arms apparently, and Thomas waited until the whole force available on that side could be concentrated on Nashville. The attack from within commenced on the 15th of December, and within two days an army had been destroyed, Hood barely escaping across the Tennessee at Bainbridge with a wreck of his force and a few guns. Thomas had taken 72 guns, nearly 12,000 prisoners, and over 2,200 deserters had taken the amnesty oath

from the Union, against each one of them. There was a general assault, because they had advanced into the hero of Chickamauga. He gave rest to his army, and he himself no rest. He shed. Two corps were at Chattanooga for his crowning

Confederate army of cavalry, struck for the destruction of Union forces. Increasing his force to 30,000 men to the army of the Confederacy, and Schofield retreated from Franklin, Georgia, with a loss of himself, but not of one gun. That he went to Nashville and the weather was beginning of December. Nashville, was in the hands of the Confederacy. Grant, distant from the delay; but all the arms apparently, the force available on Nashville. The 15th of December had been destroyed, Tennessee at Bainbridge and a few guns. 12,000 prisoners, in the amnesty oath

in that brief interval. Breckenridge had been driven into North Carolina. Wytheville, with its lead mines and salt works, was in the hands of the Union, and East Tennessee had been cleared of Confederate forces.

44.—SHERMAN'S MARCH TO THE SEA was an old idea which had been cherished by Grant, and it had been entered upon as soon as Hood commenced the invasion of Tennessee. His force was about 65,000 when concentrated for his departure on Kingston and Rome, in Georgia. The railroads were destroyed, and the telegraph lines also, as measures of military precaution; Atlanta was given to the flames, the workshops and storehouses of the South were ruined and closed, and the march began. Atlanta, Macon, Milledgeville, Millen and Savannah were his successive points, but there were no halting places. Cavalry and skirmishers clouded the line of march, and terror magnified the strength of the movement, which was strong enough to bear down all opposition. Augusta was supposed to be the object of his approach, and while forces were being concentrated at that point, he struck Fort McAllister, on the Ogeechee, opening communication with Dahlgren's fleet, and compelling Hardee to evacuate Savannah. With a loss of little more than 500 men he had captured 167 guns, 1,328 prisoners, and broken the strength of the Confederacy in a wide range of country. One month in Savannah gave a partial rest to the main body, while Dana, Davidson and Grierson raided over Mississippi and Alabama. Leaving a sufficient garrison in Savannah, on the first day of February, 1865, Sherman commenced his march through the Carolinas, to rejoin Grant, before Richmond, where all the forces were now converging, to assist Lee, or to aid in his annihilation. The flooded swamps were the main obstacles to his career, but there was no time to make detours, or build bridges. Hardee was forced to evacuate Charleston; Columbia was burned; Kilpatrick, temporarily routed, rallied his troops and beat off Wade Hampton's force, and at

Fayetteville Sherman found an army of 40,000 men to dispute his line of March. Johnston, chief of the Confederate command here, was supported by Hardee, Beauregard, Cheatham, Bragg, and the cavalry corps of Wheeler and Wade Hampton. There was a halt of three days, and then on the 15th of March an advance. Hardee assailed the left in a narrow pass, but was repulsed heavily; and there was no more fighting until the 18th, when Johnston with the main body struck the right near Bentonville; but the Confederates drew off after very considerable losses, and the army rested at Goldsboro, while the victorious leader consulted with the Lieut. General at City Point, as to future movements. Wilmington, N. C., was of transcendent importance to the Confederates, and it had been assailed repeatedly by the forces of the Union, under Butler and Porter, in November, 1864, and under Terry and Porter, in January, 1865, with only partial success. Schofield, on the 22d of February, reinforcing and outranking Terry, entered Wilmington with 20,000 Unionists, and captured the place, with sixty-five guns. When Sherman arrived at Goldsboro, Schofield was ready to cooperate with his commander. The eclipse of the Confederacy was at hand, and darkness was overshadowing every quarter.

45.—GENERAL CANBY, commanding at New Orleans, moved towards Mobile in the spring of 1865, cooperating with Gen. Wilson, and a series of successes on their part still further narrowed the area of the Confederacy. Forrest was routed; Montgomery and Columbus were taken, with an aggregate of 84 guns. Fort Tyler was also captured, and at Macon operations came to an end because of the news that arrived from Virginia. Mobile was evacuated by Maury in consequence of Canby's operations, and 150 guns fell into the hands of the Union at that point.

46.—END OF THE WAR. Lee had under him his last army, and he was fighting with the energy of despair, as well as with consummate skill; but there was

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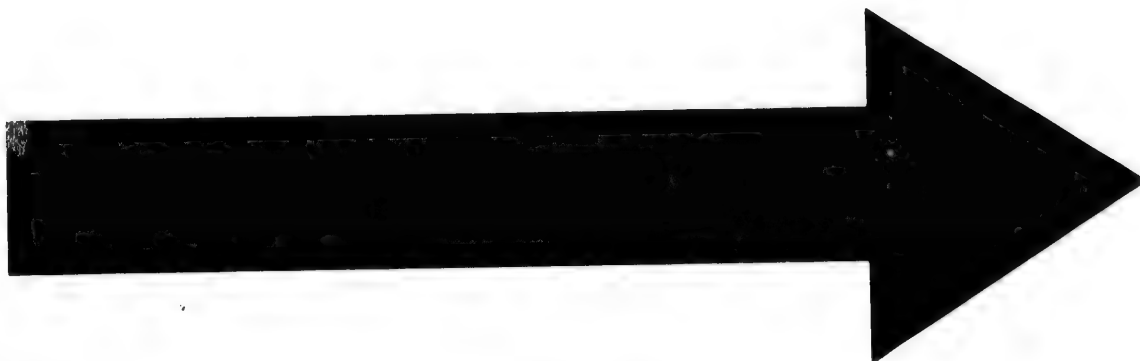
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nothing before him save defeat, with such honor and respect as bravery and capacity seldom fail to inspire. Early in December, 1864, Grant's right had extended down the Weldon railroad twenty miles to Hicksford, and another fortified post was established at Hatcher's Run, where early in February, 1865, an assault by the Confederates was severely repulsed. Sheridan, in the beginning of March, drove Early from Waynesboro, taking guns and prisoners, destroyed stores at Charlottesville, broke up miles of the Lynchburg and Richmond railroad, and passing behind Lee's army, reached Grant before Petersburg on the 27th of March. He made an assault on Fort Stedman on the 25th of that month, but the success of the first movement was not supported, and it became evident that the Confederate General was preparing to abandon his position. The affair at Dinwiddie Court House was part of Grant's movement to hem in his opponent, and Lee's endeavor to repeat the lesson of Chancellorsville, met with but little success. Five Forks was won under Sheridan on the first day of April, with great loss to the Confederates, besides the works that were carried; and now the way was clear for a general assault on Petersburg on the following day. Petersburg was gallantly carried in spite of the heroism of its defenders, and Lee communicated to President Davis that Richmond was no longer tenable. But that he was overruled by the President, Lee would have abandoned Richmond much earlier, as his force in the open field could have been much more serviceably employed; but he was a soldier, and he bowed to authority. Before the morning of April 3, 1865, Richmond had been abandoned, Davis and all his staff, official and military, having made good their retreat during the night. President Lincoln spent the morning in Richmond, had been at City Point at the headquarters of the army the night before. The works at Petersburg, not yet carried, were abandoned at the same time, and Lee, with all of his available force, retreated towards Danville by the

railroad. All over the North and West wherever the news could be flashed, joy bells rang out and salutes were fired, because none could doubt that the General whose genius had brought the Confederacy to its then condition, would make the conquest complete. President Davis continued his flight as far as Danville by train, as it was important to remove the government beyond the probability of capture; but Gen. Lee halted for two days at Amelia Court House, 36 miles W. S. W. of Richmond, in the hope that he might be able to procure sustenance for his 35,000 almost starving men. The quest was in vain; the ground had been foraged over until there was not one henroost tenanted within many miles, and the credit of the Confederate government would not purchase fodder for a mule. While still engaged in commissariat duty, it became known that Grant was in pursuit, and it was necessary to consider other measures. Custer's Horse struck the flying host near Sailor's Creek, and the attack was supported by the divisions of Crooks and Davis. That day diminished the retreating force by 6,000 prisoners. At Farmville, where Lee sought to cross the Appomattox, Gen. Read with two regiments barred the way; but his force was insufficient for the task that had been undertaken, and Gen. Lee made good his passage. Beyond Farmville it was necessary to turn again and fight for the chance of a retreat, and Humphrey's second corps was repelled with some loss, but the delay might have been fatal had not Gen. Grant been deceived by the expectation that Lee would strike for Danville instead of Lynchburg. Early on the 8th, Grant courteously invited the General to surrender, and on the same day Sheridan pushed on to Appomattox Court House, a march of 28 miles, which cut off the retreating army from its last hope of supplies. There was now no possibility of an advance, without a battle under every disadvantage, as Grant had reinforced Sheridan by a forced march of Griffin's and Ord's corps during the night; and should the lion

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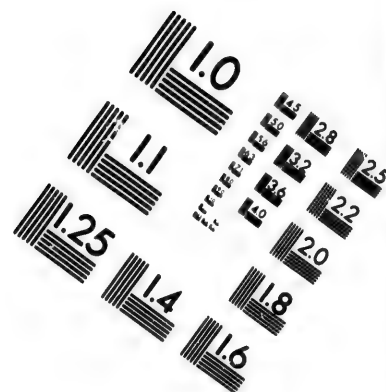
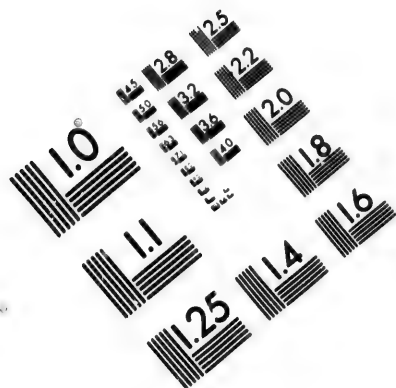
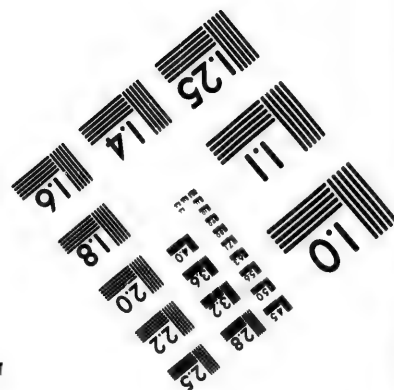
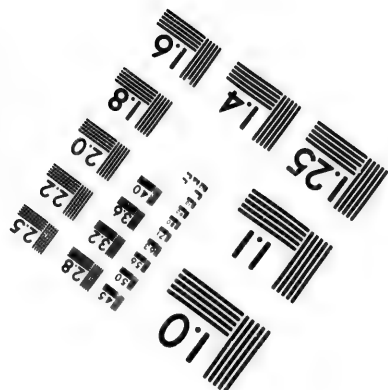
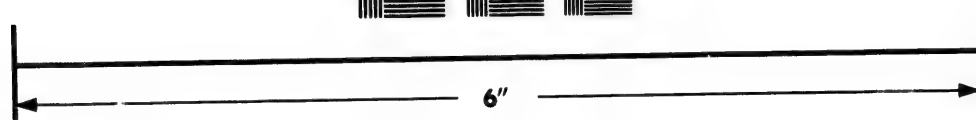
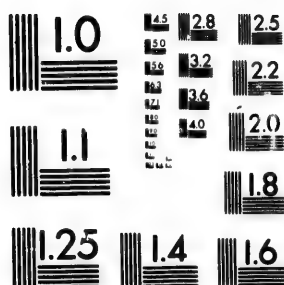


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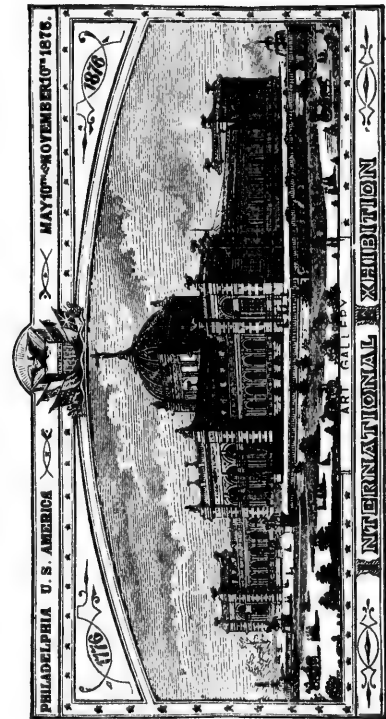
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thus taken in the toils of his adversary persist in fighting, he must be struck from all quarters by overwhelming numbers before the end of the day. Lee had answered Grant's note on the 8th by requesting an interview to arrange the terms for peace; but the victorious General could not consent to any such terms, and on the 9th he replied, pointing out that he could do nothing in that direction beyond accepting his surrender. Grant's tone was such as to command the admiration of all thoughtful and generous men, and Lee could not fail to be impressed by the facts to which his communications gave force. Still it was his duty to keep the field as long as circumstances would permit, with any hope of advantage to the falling cause. On the morning of the 9th the starving Confederates attempted to resume their march, but the road was barred by a cavalry force, and bravely as ever, preparations were made to remove the obstacle, when, as in a tableau the curtain may be drawn to reveal the mystery, the horsemen retired to the flanks, revealing solid regiments of infantry drawn up in order of battle, against which the famine stricken body must hurl itself in vain. The merciful demonstration saved unnecessary and useless bloodshed. A parley was called and a surrender followed, each officer and man returning to his home undisturbed by United States authority, so long as their paroles were observed and they were obedient to the laws of the Union. Lee's army numbered 27,000 when this submission was made, and the other forces of the Confederacy, with the exception of Gen. E. K. Smith, came in on the same conditions with little delay. Gen. Johnston with his army surrendered at Raleigh, N. C., to Sherman, on the 26th of April. Gen. Taylor made his submission to Canby at Citronelle, Alabama, on the 4th of May. Smith, who was in command west of the Mississippi, believed that he could carry on his shoulders the load that had overpowered the able man whose surrender was compelled at Appomattox; but the men under his command

marched each his several way, carrying as much of Confederate property as he could secure, as small installments toward the never to be paid indebtedness of the defunct government. Thus the military existence of the Confederacy ceased, and its civil power was dying out at the same moment.

47. — PRESIDENT JEFFERSON DAVIS was at Danville when we last saw him, having retreated to that point when Lee made a stand at Amelia Court House. One week after his arrival at that point, where he was still dreaming of making terms, if he could not secure a victory, tidings reached him that Lee had surrendered, and that the Confederacy had entirely failed. The merciful conditions granted to the crushed armies of the rebellion, completing the victories won by force of arms, left the defeated President no hope that his troops would ever again rally under that standard which his hands had unfurled, and which his brain had plotted for during many months, if not many years, before the rupture between the states. Southward to Greensboro, North Carolina, was his next flight, still President of the Confederacy, and hoping that his presence would infuse new courage into Johnston's army; but a brief halt at that place showed him that his fortunes had waned entirely. Johnston, next to Lee in point of ability, and in some respects even his superior, had common sense enough to perceive that the war, continued beyond the stage that had now been reached, must be an inexcusable provocation to butchery without the remotest chance of success. The capitulation of the army in North Carolina was consummated on the 26th of April, and before that day, Davis was on his way to Washington in the state of Georgia, escorted by a cavalry force of about two thousand men, which dwindled in numbers at every cross road and halting place, and which revealed in every action the falling off which the dignity of the ruler had suffered. Arrived in Georgia he was no longer President of the Confederacy, but simple Jefferson

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Davis hoping to find safety in flight upon any terms. So many millions had suffered from his action that he could not hope for personal safety if he became the prisoner of the north; and yet that was the fate which overtook him, within a few days after his arrival in Georgia, within one month from the assassination of Lincoln, and on the fourteenth day after John Wilkes Booth was shot for that cruel deed. Jefferson Davis, accompanied by a few followers who were content to share his altered fortunes, had encamped near Irwinville with his family, hoping to make his way to the coast, when two detachments of cavalry, sent out as a patrol in search of the flying President, by Gen. Wilson, whose headquarters were at Macon, swooped down upon the encampment. He and his family were at once conveyed to Savannah, where, of course, his family was liberated, but he was conveyed a prisoner to Fortress Monroe and held there for two years. If Mr. Davis had been brought to trial in the North, while his name was yet associated in the minds of men with the Surratt-Booth conspiracy and assassination, it is hardly to be believed that he would have escaped; but the rulers were willing to temper justice with mercy, and he remains a monument of such mercy as has never been paralleled in the case of the captured leader of a bloody and unsuccessful rebellion. Two years after the capture, in 1867, there was a proposal to allow him to go at large on bail, and it was not easy to find men who would assume the position of bondsmen for him; but Horace Greeley magnanimously assumed the responsibility, and the quondam President has never been called upon to stand a trial. The only executions in consequence of the civil war, beyond the range of the battle fields of the hostile armies on northern soil, have been the hanging of the accomplices of Booth in the cowardly and shameful assassination of the Great President; and the well deserved execution of the Prison Commandant at Andersonville, Henry Wirz, whose brutal

conduct to the Union prisoners, during the war, merited the worst punishment that humanity could devise, as a deterrent against such ruffianism in the future. Wirz was tried by a military tribunal, and, being found guilty, was executed on the 10th of November, 1865.

48. — CONFEDERATE PRIVATEERING. Naturally desiring to preserve the current of affairs on land, and on the coast, during the record of the Confederacy, it was not possible to interweave therewith the deeds which for a time almost ruined the international commerce of the United States; and yet the history of the time, however briefly given, must needs be fragmentary and incomplete without some notice of those incidents. The proceedings of privateers are seldom blazoned on the pages of history, but in this instance the claims made upon Great Britain for damages resulting to our commerce from the action of ships built, fitted and refitted in her ports, have given a world wide reputation and notoriety to deeds but little if anything above the status of buccaneering. For that reason it becomes necessary to trace the doings of the privateers that fought and plundered in the name of the South from 1861 to 1865.

49. — THE DECLARATION OF WAR by the Confederate States on the 17th of May, 1861, mainly consisted of an announcement that letters of marque and reprisal would be issued against the commerce of the United States; and soon after that date, a Confederate agent named Bullock, entered into arrangements with a firm in Liverpool, England, to build the vessel afterwards known as the *Florida*. There was a formal pretense that the steamer was being built for the Italian Government, but her actual ownership and purpose were well known. The British Government was on several occasions informed as to the actual facts, by the Minister at the Court of St. James, Mr. Adams; and the Consul at Liverpool, Mr. Dudley, continuously represented each successive step in the proper quar-

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ter, but without avail. There was no such speed in the movements of the builders as to prevent action on the part of the government; but in reality, at that time, the ministry was well inclined towards the Confederacy, and would not make an effort to serve the cause of the Union. The Florida, being completed, sailed on the 23d of March, 1862, nearly the whole crew being British, and only one an American, and her destination was Nassau, N. P. Another vessel, which sailed about the same time as the Florida, carried her shot, shells and ammunition to Nassau, where they were taken on board a schooner, and subsequently transhipped. So complete had been the preparation in Liverpool, that within twenty-four hours after that shipment, the Florida was ready for sea as a war vessel. The Florida commenced her ravages against our mercantile marine at once, burning, scuttling and otherwise destroying unarmed vessels at sea, because there was no port into which they could be taken to be sold as prizes. Three of the vessels captured by the Florida were fitted up as tenders, and rendered aid in the destruction of our ships, always carefully avoiding contact with armed vessels. On the fourth of September, 1862, the Florida having hoisted the English flag, and pretending to be a British man of war, ran through the blockading squadron, into Mobile, escaping thence on the 26th of January, 1863, and continuing her career in the service of the enemy until Oct. 7, 1864; within which time many millions of dollars in value were captured and destroyed by this ship and her armed tenders, the Clarence, the Archer and the Tacony. In the presence of the ships of the United States, the Florida showed false flags and false papers, so that there was but little chance for the suppression of her infamous system of licensed piracy. The complicity of Great Britain in the fact of her being built in an English port and refitted at several different times under the flag of that nation, was clearly made out before the High Commission at Geneva on the Alabama claims.

50.—THE ALABAMA CRUISER was built for the Confederate government by Laird & Sons, at Birkenhead, and pierced for twelve guns. In this case, as in that of the Florida, proper representations were made to the British government, but without such results as would prove the strict neutrality of that power. The minister at the Court of St. James did not cease to importune Downing Street, the official home of the English government, to procure vigorous action, which would have prevented the sailing of the vessel; but the utmost good attained was a reference of the case to the Attorney General for an opinion on the law, and when that folly had been leisurely enacted, the vessel had taken her departure, under the pretense that she was only making a trial trip. As in the former case the ship was not armed at the time of her departure, but she was prepared for armament, and the requisites to complete her equipment were forwarded to Terciera. Capt. Semmes took command in August, 1862, and from that time to the end of the ship's career the commerce of this country suffered from her depredations. The Alabama never ventured into a Confederate port, as her captain knew the dangers that might beset him before he could regain the open seas. It is claimed that he captured sixty-five vessels, burning nearly all, with such parts of the cargoes as could not be easily appropriated, and the total value of the property destroyed by him is stated at \$6,000,000. Besides that enormous aggregate of loss, there was a still greater item distributed over the enhanced cost of shipments and rates of insurance which taxed the whole community. The Pacific Ocean was the favorite cruising ground of Capt. Semmes, and the strength of his armament made him a terror to merchant vessels, so that he at length arrived at the opinion that he was invincible. Laboring under that idea the Captain found an opportunity to submit his belief to the crucial test of experiment in June 1864. The Alabama was at that time lying in Cherbourg refitting, after a prolonged cruise

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in the Pacific, when the United States war steamer Kearsarge, under the command of Capt. Winslow, arrived in that port, and Semmes challenged him to fight. The Kearsarge carried only seven guns, but she carried a commander and crew fully competent to use them, and the challenge was immediately accepted. The fight came off on the 19th of June, and there were many spectators of the engagement, such a duel being a rare spectacle anywhere. From the first onset it was evident that seamanship was on the side of the Kearsarge, and that long usage among merchant ships and other unarmed or partly unarmed craft had not given precision to Capt. Semmes' appreciation of naval tactics. While the vessels were still quite a mile from each other, the guns of the Alabama were fired wildly, in rapid succession, without the least chance of damage to the Kearsarge, but greatly risking the yachts and other vessels which had assembled to enjoy the display. On board the Kearsarge there was the coolness and reserve of men fully aware of the importance of their duty, and resolved to accomplish all that was possible under the circumstances. The steamers described circles about an always changing center, firing all the time after they had come within range, as rapidly as the guns could be loaded and run out. Three men killed and wounded on board the Kearsarge showed the skill in gunnery possessed by the Alabama crew, and the qualities of the Kearsarge men were proved by ten times that amount of damage in the Confederate steamer. Thirty men killed and wounded in one case against three in the other cannot be explained except on the hypothesis of the greater coolness, skill and efficiency of the United States service. Seven circles had been described by the Alabama when the white flag was run up; the infamous cruiser was sinking and the Kearsarge ceased firing to save life. Sixty-five prisoners were taken on board the Kearsarge before the Alabama went to the bottom; but unfortunately Capt. Winslow requested the English yacht Deerhound to

assist in rescuing the men who were in danger of death, and Semmes, taking refuge in that vessel, was carried to England. International law assumes that a ship is a part of the nation from which she hails, and in consequence a person once on board of an English vessel occupied a position just as unassailable as though he trod the soil of that country. The fact was none the less greatly to be regretted. The depredations of the Alabama were duly considered and awarded upon at Geneva.

51.—THE GEORGIA ran a much shorter career. She was built on the Clyde in Scotland, for the Confederates, and sailed early in 1863, after some abortive and tardy steps on the part of the English government to prevent her departure. The consular and diplomatic service of the country did all that was possible to secure prompt vindication of the neutrality, which Great Britain claimed to be observing. Like the other vessels named, she was not armed when leaving Great Britain, but arms, ammunition and equipments were sent to meet her off the French coast, in another vessel, and immediately after the transfer was effected, she commenced her course of spoliation. Twelve months later the Georgia returned to Liverpool and was there disposed of by the Confederate agents, in spite of the protests of Mr. Adams in London, but a better method of operation was discovered after the sale had been effected, as the United States cruiser Niagara took possession of her soon after she again left port.

52.—THE SHENANDOAH was the British steamer Sea King, and engaged in the India trade, but having been purchased by the Confederacy, she sailed in ballast from Bombay in October, 1864, and met at Funchal, the capital of Madeira, another vessel which supplied her with all the munitions of war and a Confederate crew under the command of Capt. Waddell. Most of the original crew refused to serve in her as a Confederate cruiser and she sailed consequen-

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ly with only half her complement from Funchal. In January, 1865, the Shenandoah arrived in Melbourne, the port and capital of Victoria, where her character as a Confederate cruiser procured high encomiums from an aristocratic minority of the population, but strong disapproval from the intelligence and strength of the colony; in obedience to which the colonial government refused to permit enlistments in that port or any coaling and refitting beyond what was consistent with neutrality. The orders vigorously made, were not efficiently executed, and in consequence, the subsequent ravages of the Shenandoah among the unarmed whaling vessels in the Arctic regions were charged against England by the High Commission which sat in Geneva. In the region selected for her operations, United States cruisers were not likely to be met, and she continued her career for several months after the Confederate government had succumbed. The Shenandoah arrived in Liverpool on the 6th of November, 1865, and was at once taken possession of by the British Government, being subsequently handed over to the United States. It will be seen at once that there was little honor or glory in such nefarious exploits as were the chief aims of the so called Confederate Privateers.

53. — THE SUMTER, Tallahassee, Chickamauga, Nashville and Retribution were fitted out in Confederate ports, and therefore incurred some danger before they were able to take part in the abominable system of privateering, which probably will be banished from the war code of civilized nations before many years have passed away. Our blockading squadrons are supposed to have captured in all 1,500 vessels attempting to run the blockade of the several ports from the beginning to the end of the war. Upon the coast, and wherever legitimate fighting was to be done, the Navy was equal to the occasion; but the destruction of unarmed vessels pursuing a legitimate vocation, was no part of their work. Viewed even on the low plane of

material success, the Confederacy gained nothing from its letters of marque, and if the commerce of the loyal states was injured by the war, that of the South was absolutely destroyed. There was only one instance in which the Confederate Navy showed a marked superiority over ours, and that was in Hampton Roads, on the day in which the Virginia Ram, originally the Merrimack, ran into and sank the Cumberland. Even then the superiority was not manifest more than twenty-four hours, when the Monitor, arriving on her trial trip, crippled and compelled the retreat of the much larger vessel. In both arms of the service the United States had ample cause to be proud of her defenders; but in the Navy the superiority of our force never permitted of a doubt from the hour when the ships could be brought back from the distant stations to which they had been disloyally dispatched previous to Lincoln's inauguration.

54. — THE ALABAMA CLAIMS arbitrated upon at Geneva, upon which the High Commission awarded to this country the sum of \$15,500,000, have established a new feature in international law which hereafter will secure in the ports of neutral powers an absolute neutrality, such as has never before been obtained; and the fact that the English government has become more just and conciliatory in its bearing toward this country, in proportion as political power has passed more and more into the hands of the people, must be accepted as an evidence that whatever may be the feeling of the aristocratic class in that nation, the great mass of the community fully recognizes and upholds the duty of the two great English speaking nations to work cordially together in the interests of humanity, now and forever, as men of one race, with a great destiny in common.

BRITISH AMERICA.

EXTENT.—The British possessions in America comprise the whole northern part of North America, north of the territory owned by the United States, except Alaska, formerly Russian America. The territory extends from latitude 41° to 78° north, and from longitude 52° to 141° west. It is bounded on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, Davis' Straits and Baffin's Bay; north by the Arctic Ocean, northwest by the Territory of Alaska; west by the Pacific Ocean, and south by the United States. It embraces the provinces or colonies of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, British Columbia, Manitoba, the Northwestern Territory, Hudson's Bay Territory and Labrador. Besides these political divisions, the British possessions in America may be said to include British Guiana, the West Indies, etc.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

EXTENT.—The Dominion of Canada is a partial dependency of the British Empire, and will, in all probability, eventually include all the American possessions of Great Britain lying north of the United States. The Dominion, in contradistinction to the forms of government existing in the provinces previously, was founded in 1867, by the union of the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. In 1872, the provinces of Manitoba, British Columbia and the Northwest Territory were added, and in 1873, Prince Edward Island was admitted, leaving only Newfoundland outside the Dominion in 1873.

I. BOUNDARIES.

1.—The Dominion of Canada is bounded on the south by the United States, on the east by the Atlantic, on the north by the Arctic Ocean, and on the west by Alaska and the Pacific Ocean. A part of the southern boundary is formed by Lakes Superior, Huron, Erie and Ontario. The line which divides the country from the State of Maine was not determined until 1843, and the long pending discussion between Great Britain and the United States, as to the island of San Juan, in the Pacific, was not decided until 1872. The matter was referred to the Emperor of Germany. In 1872 the area of the Dominion was estimated at 3,389,442 square miles, being nearly equal to that of the United States.

II. SURFACE.

1.—ONTARIO AND QUEBEC. The St. Lawrence river is one of the finest in the world. It is difficult to give any well defined line dividing this noble river from the gulf bearing its name into which it enters; at some points this river has a width of forty miles, at others it contracts to one mile. It has three outlets, the principal of which lies between Cape Breton and Newfoundland; the narrowest is the Gut of Canso, which divides Cape Breton from Nova Scotia; the third consisting of the Straits of Belle Isle, dividing the Labrador coast from Newfoundland. The St. Lawrence is navigable for seagoing vessels as far as Montreal, a distance of 600 miles. Above Montreal there are several extensive rapids, which can be descended by the largest steamers that traverse the lakes; but as no force of steam can overcome the strength of these rapids, canals have been constructed near the sides of the river, enabling steamers to ascend. The canals, with that intended to overcome the Falls of Niagara, the Welland, have been constructed at a cost of over \$14,000,000 by the government of Canada. By the aid of these canals and that constructed

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at Sault Ste. Marie between Lakes Huron and Superior, vessels may descend from the head of the latter lake to the ocean. Vessels have sailed from Chicago to Liverpool. Lake Ontario is a beautiful inland sea, having a length of 180 miles, a breadth of 60 and a circumference of 500 miles. It has an average depth of 500 feet. Lake Erie has a length of 280 miles, a breadth of 63, a circumference of 700 and an average depth of 250 feet. Lake Huron has a length of 252 miles, a breadth of 190 miles and an average depth of 860 feet. Lake Superior, the largest of the chain, has a length of 360 miles, a breadth of 140 miles, a circumference of 1,500 miles and an average depth of 1,000 feet. Lakes Ontario and Erie are connected by the Niagara River; Lakes Erie and Huron are connected by the Detroit River or Strait and the River and Lake St. Clair; Lakes Huron and Superior are connected by the Sault Ste. Marie.

2. — Over the interior of Ontario and Quebec, lakes of smaller size are profusely scattered; even in the most rugged parts of Quebec the mountains are frequently cleft by rivers, and bear beautiful little lakes upon their summits. The more level parts of Ontario abound in creeks and rivers. Next to the St. Lawrence, the Ottawa, one of its tributaries, is the largest river in Canada. It has a length of about 680 miles, and drains, by the aid of tributaries, an area of nearly 80,000 square miles. This valley is one of the most extensive pineries in Canada. The width of the Ottawa is very irregular, and in many places it is lost in the lakes through which it runs. In one place, for over forty miles, it has an irregular width of from one to ten miles; in other places it is much the same. Along its course, the Ottawa presents many portages where the waters expand to a width of over fifty yards and are precipitated over rocks, sometimes forming beautiful cascades. The Ottawa has been made navigable in stretches, by the construction of canals to overcome falls or rapids, a considerable distance above Ottawa City.

3.—The third great navigable river of Canada is the Saguenay. At its entrance is the ancient port of Tadousac, which had become very popular in Europe, before Quebec was founded. The mouth of the river is further down the St. Lawrence than Quebec, hence it was frequently visited by the early French explorers. The average width of the river is about three-fourths of a mile. Its banks are high and precipitous, and present a picture of rare grandeur. It is navigable for seventy-five miles from its mouth. The St. Maurice, which falls into the St. Lawrence from the north, at three rivers, is navigable for a short distance from its mouth only, when navigation is interrupted for forty-four miles; then there is another navigable stretch of seventy-five miles, on which steamers run. Lumbering has been conducted on this river a distance of 150 miles from its mouth, and in furtherance of this interest, its tributaries have been surveyed through an area of over 14,000 square miles. The valley drained by this river is very extensive.

4.—The Betisamite, situated below the Saguenay, is also a large tributary of the St. Lawrence, flowing from the north. It is navigable for light crafts. The Rideau River, which falls into Lake Ontario at Kingston, was made navigable as far as Ottawa City, for military purposes, by the aid of the Rideau Canal. This was accomplished at a cost of \$7,500,000, but the canal has since fallen into disuse. The Peninsula of Upper Canada, though well watered by a large number of small streams, has no navigable rivers. The Thames, which falls into Lake St. Clair, is navigable for small crafts as far as Chatham, a distance of over eighty miles. By artificial aid, the Grand River, which falls into Lake Erie, has been made navigable for small vessels as far as Brantford. Lake Simcoe lies north of Toronto, forming the eastern limit of the Peninsula. It is forty miles long and thirty wide, and has an average depth of 125 feet. It is connected by means of the river Severn with Georgian Bay. There

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5. — The province is traversed throughout its entire length by a chain of mountains which divides the country into two great basins, that on the north being the largest in the east, and that in the south being the largest in the western part. This range is called the Laurentian Mountains. The mountains on the south of the St. Lawrence reach an elevation of 3,768 feet, while the highest peaks of the chain just mentioned reach to a height of from 4,000 to 5,000 feet. This elevation is found between Quebec and Lake St. John, "but this is at a point where the rivers, including the Jacques Cartier, are 3,000 feet above the level of the St. Lawrence."

III. EARLY HISTORY.

French Canada. 1608-1706.

1. — The voyages of Cartier, Roberval and Champlain, carry us through an account of the efforts of discovery put forth by France to colonize the territory bordering the St. Lawrence. The latter, sailing as the Lieutenant of De Monts, became the founder of Quebec in 1608. Champlain found the country in possession of a powerful aboriginal nation, called the Algonquins. During the first winter which he passed at his newly established post, he engaged in the work of concluding a treaty with the natives, in which he was successful. The Indians agreed to assist Champlain in conducting an expedition through the country of the Iroquois, and the powerful Indian nation with which the newly made friends of Champlain were in constant war, on the conditions that the French would lend a helping hand in their general cause. In agreeing to their proposals, Champlain seems not to have dreamed of provoking a war with the Iroquois, but, in the spring of 1609, when he, with two of his countrymen and a strong guard of his Indian allies penetrated their country, he was met with a bold front. In

the battle which followed, the enemy was routed, being awed at the havoc made by the unknown instruments of destruction in the hands of the French. When Champlain returned from this expedition he met sad news. The merchants of France had de-claimed against the monopoly of the fur trade vested in De Monts, by which the commission of the latter was revoked, and Champlain was recalled. On reaching France he gave a full and satisfactory account of the new country to the king, but was unable, even through persistent urgency, to obtain a renewal of the monopoly. But his zeal for extending his colony was not checked by this refusal. He formed a league with some traders of Rochelle in 1610, and returned to America with a considerable reinforcement and with fresh supplies.

2. — Upon his return to the newly founded colony, he again set out with a party of Algonquins against the Iroquois, in which he repeated his former success. "Before taking leave of his allies, he prevailed on them to allow one of their young men to accompany him to France, while at the same time a Frenchman remained to learn the language of the Indians. Having again visited France, in 1611, he returned with the Indian youth, whom he designed to employ as interpreter between the French and their allies. While awaiting an appointment which he had made with his savage friends, he passed the time in selecting a place for a new settlement, higher up the river than Quebec. After a careful survey, he fixed upon a spot on the southern border of a beautiful island, inclosed by the divided channel of the St. Lawrence, cleared a considerable space, inclosed it by an earthen wall, and sowed some grain. From an eminence in the vicinity which he named Mont Royal, the place has since been called Montreal."

3. — But the great pioneer again found it necessary to visit his native country, this time for the purpose of laying a secure foundation for the execution of his

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gigantic plans of colonization, which he recommended to his Indian allies. "He was so fortunate," says Marcus Wilson, "as almost immediately to gain the favor of the Count de Soissons, who obtained the title of Lieutenant General of New France, and who, by a formal agreement, delegated to Champlain all the functions of that high office. The Count dying soon after, the Prince of Conde succeeded to all the privileges of the deceased, and transferred them to Champlain, on terms equally liberal. As his commission included a monopoly of the fur trade, the merchants were, as usual, loud in their complaints; but he endeavored to remove their principal objections, by allowing such as chose to accompany him to engage freely in the trade, on condition that each should furnish six men to assist in his projects of discovery, and contribute a twentieth of the profits to defray the expenses of settlement." But on Champlain's return to New France, he was diverted from his grand scheme by an effort to discover the long hoped for passage to China in the northwest, "A Frenchman," says the same author, "who had spent a winter among the northern savages, reported that the river of the Algonquins (the Ottawa) issued from a lake which was connected with the North Sea, that he had visited its shores, had there seen the wreck of an English vessel, and that one of the crew was still living with the Indians. Eager to ascertain the truth of this statement, Champlain determined to devote a season to the prosecution of this grand object, and with only four of his countrymen, among whom was the author of the report and one native, he commenced his voyage by the dangerous and almost impassable route of the Ottawa River." This party, after traveling to within eight days' journey of the lake upon which the shipwreck was said to have occurred, discovered the falsity of the Frenchman's report through the testimony of the friendly tribe with whom he had previously lived, and fearing just punishment, he confessed that all he had said was untrue. His

motive in making the statement was to give notoriety to himself, believing that the party could not penetrate the country and discover his deception.

4. — Champlain, having once more visited France, and returned to the colony with additional forces, and being ever ready to engage in warlike enterprises with his Indian allies, planned, in connection with them, another expedition against the Iroquois. This time it was determined to march against them in the lake region. The party started from Montreal and traversed the course of the Ottawa for some distance, thence overland to Lake Huron, where they were reinforced by some Huron bands, who regarded the Iroquois as a common enemy. On the banks of Lake George they found the Iroquois in their fortifications. "The Iroquois at first, advanced and met their assailants in front of the fortifications, but the whizzing balls from the firearms soon drove them within the ramparts, and, finally, from all the outer defenses. They continued, however, to pour forth showers of arrows and stones, and fought with such bravery that, in spite of all the exertions of the few French and their allies, it was found impossible to drive them from their stronghold." In the first assault, Champlain lost some of his native warriors, and he was himself severely wounded twice. After several days in fruitless attempts to dislodge the Iroquois, the French and Indians were compelled to retire; but, from the dishonesty and indisposition of his allies, Champlain was obliged to spend the winter in the country of the Hurons, being unable to obtain guides and facilities to make the return journey. But in the following spring (1615), he was enabled to leave that region. He sailed for France soon after, and reached his native country in September of the same year. "The interests of the colony were now for some time much neglected, owing to the unsettled state of France during the minority of Louis XIII, and it was not until 1620 that Champlain was enabled to return, with a new

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equipment, fitted out by an association of merchants. During his absence the settlements had been considerably neglected, and, after all that had been done for the colony, there remained, when winter set in, not more than sixty inhabitants, of all ages."

5. — In the spring of 1621, the association of merchants which had fitted out the last expedition was deprived of all its privileges. De Caen was sent out as Governor of the colony, and the power of Champlain was for a time suspended. "The violent and arbitrary proceedings of the new Governor, however, caused much dissatisfaction, in consequence of which a great part of the population connected with the European traders took their departure. De Caen soon after returning to France, the powers of government again fell into the hands of Champlain, who turned his attention to discoveries and settlements in the interior." Champlain, soon after his restoration, negotiated a treaty between the Iroquois and Hurons which, for a short time only, put a stop to the war between those nations. From 1622 to 1627, and even later, the progress of the colony in New France was checked by the war between the Catholics and Protestants in Europe, which extended also to America. In the latter year, however, war broke out between England and France, and two Calvinists — refugees from France — David and Lewis Kirk, enlisted in the British service, and engaged in an expedition against the French settlements in America. The squadron, under the command of these men, sailed to the mouth of the St. Lawrence, captured several vessels, and cut off all communication between New France and the mother country. Port Royal and other French settlements in that vicinity soon fell into the hands of the English, and, in July, 1629, Sir David Kirk demanded the surrender of Quebec. The post, being weakened, yielded, and now the French possessions in America fell into the hands of the English. But these events had scarcely taken place in the new world when, in

the old, articles of peace had been signed which promised the restitution of all the conquests made previous to April 14, 1829; and, by the final treaty of March, 1632, France was restored to a possession of her American colonies—not only of New France, but of all Acadia.

6.—No sooner was the French authority peacefully reextended over New France, than Champlain was re-invested with his former jurisdiction, which he worthily maintained till his death in 1636. He was succeeded by Montmagny, whose situation was rendered critical by the dangerous attitude of the Indians. The war with the indomitable Iroquois had broken out with greater fury than ever. The French, being themselves weakened, were unable to render their Algonquin friends any assistance; hence they were humbled; the Hurons were also sorely pressed, and of course the French settlements were in danger. The Governor, however, succeeded in effecting another treaty, and for a time it was observed in comparative peace. During this partial peace on the borders, the missionaries formed establishments not only at Quebec and Montreal, but penetrated far into the interior, establishing missionary posts, collecting the natives in villages, and converting them to the Catholic faith by thousands. Upwards of three thousand Hurons are recorded to have been baptized at one time, and though it was easier to make converts than to retain them, yet many were for a time reclaimed from their savage habits, and very favorable prospects were opened. But this period of repose was soon ended, the Iroquois having, in 1648, again determined to renew the war, and, as it is asserted, without any known cause or pretext whatever.

7.—However, the blow was effectual, and the fury of the invincible Iroquois was felt throughout Canada. "The frontier settlements of the French were attacked with the most fatal precision, and their inhabitants, without distinction of age or sex, involved in indis

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criminate slaughter. The Hurons were everywhere defeated; and their country, lately so peaceable and flourishing, became a land of horror and of blood. The whole Huron nation, with one consent, dispersed, and fled for refuge in every direction. A few afterwards reluctantly united with their conquerors; the greater number sought an asylum among the Chipewas of Lake Superior; while a small remnant sought the protection of the French at Quebec. The Iroquois having completely overrun Canada, the French were virtually blockaded in the three forts of Quebec, Three Rivers and Montreal; and almost every autumn, bands of hostile invaders swept away the limited harvests raised in the immediate vicinity of these places. Yet again this fierce people, as if satiated with blood, began of their own accord to make overtures of peace, and to solicit the missionaries to teach them the Christian doctrine. In 1656 a French settlement, connected with a mission, was actually established in the territory of the Onondagas. This establishment, however, was of short continuance, for as the other confederate tribes disapproved of the measure, the French were obliged to withdraw. In 1658 the French were compelled to accept humiliating terms of peace, yet even by these means they obtained but little repose. Often, while peace was proclaimed at one station, war raged at another. At length, in 1663, it was announced that deputies from the different cantons of the Iroquois were on their way to Montreal, with the professed intention of burying the hatchet so deep that it should never again be dug up, and of planting the tree of peace, whose branches should overshadow the whole land. But unhappily, a party of Algonquins, stung by accumulated wrongs, and resolving on vengeance, determined to violate even the sacred character of such a mission, and having an ambuscade, killed nearly all the party." With this indiscreet blow all hopes of peace disappeared, and the Iroquois renewed the war.

8.— Everywhere before them they sent dismay, and

behind them they left only devastation and conquest. The Algonquin allies of the French either fled or were slain, with not so much as an attempt at resistance. While these Indians were extending their conquest, the French were helpless within their forts, fearing to venture out in defense of their allies. At length, harassed by the menaces of the savages, the Governor visited France to procure aid, but was able to obtain but one hundred men. During these extreme hardships a series of earthquakes occurred in New France, commencing in February, 1663, and continuing for about six months, spreading consternation and alarm throughout the colony. In 1665, the Marquis de Tracy came to Canada as Governor, bringing with him quite a large number of emigrants and a regiment of soldiers. He proceeded to erect three forts on the river Richelieu (now the Sorel), and to conduct several well formed expeditions into the country of the Iroquois, effectually checking their insolence, and for a time the colony enjoyed comparative peace.

9. — De Tracy was succeeded by M. de Courcelles, during whose administration the French power was extended to the interior of Canada and on the upper parts of the St. Lawrence. "A settlement of Hurons, under the Jesuit Marquette, was established on the Island of Michilimackinac, between Lakes Huron and Michigan, a situation very favorable to the fur trade; and the site for a fort was selected at Cataragui, on Lake Ontario, near the present village of Kingston, an advantageous point for the protection of the trading interests, and for holding the Five Nations in awe. Count Frontenac, the successor of De Courcelles, immediately upon his accession, caused the fort at Cataragui to be completed, and it has often, from him, been called Fort Frontenac." This Governor conducted the affairs of the colony in an energetic but haughty manner for a period of ten years, when he was recalled, and M. De la Barre appointed in his stead, in 1684. The latter at first made a show of carrying on the war

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with considerable energy, and crossed Lake Ontario with a large force, when, being met by deputies from the Five Nations, he thought it most prudent to yield to their terms, and withdraw his army. The home government being dissatisfied with the issue of this campaign, the Governor was immediately recalled, and, in 1685, was succeeded by the Marquis Denonville, who enjoyed the reputation of being a brave and active officer.

10. — Whatever may have been Denonville's pretensions, it is evident that his intentions were to punish the hostile savages. "Having, under various pretexts allured a number of chiefs to meet him on the banks of Lake Ontario, he secured them and sent them to France as trophies, and afterwards they were sent as slaves to the galleys. This base stratagem kindled the flame of war, and each party prepared to carry it on to the utmost extremity. Denonville was already prepared, and with a force of 800 French regulars, and 1300 Canadians and savages, he embarked from Catarqui, for the entrance of the Genesee river. Immediately after landing he constructed a military defense, in which he left a guard of 400 men, while with the main body of his forces he advanced upon the principal town of the Senecas." When he was within a short distance of the village, approaching it, he was attacked in front and rear by a heavy force of the enemy. His troops were at first thrown into confusion, and for a time the battle was fierce and bloody, but the Iroquois were finally repulsed, and did not again make their appearance in the field. Denonville afterwards marched upon their villages, intending to destroy them, but they had already been laid in ashes by the retreating Senecas. Some fields of corn were destroyed, but Denonville was unable to do the enemy much damage. On his return he stopped at Niagara, where he erected a small fort, in which he left a garrison of 100 men. But the expedition had no sooner returned than the Indians besieged forts Niagara and Catarqui.

The former was abandoned after nearly all the garrison had perished from hunger. The Indian cause now prospered, and had the Indians been acquainted with the arts of war, they might have driven the French from the colony. As it was, the governor, in 1688, was compelled to submit to the most humiliating terms, and to send a request to France for the return of the chiefs, whom he had captured and sent to that far-off country.

11. — The treaty thus made was almost immediately broken, by the Iroquois, who were now so exasperated as to seize upon the slightest pretext for war. Among their more desperate onslaughts was that upon the Island of Montreal, which they devastated, carrying off 200 prisoners. In the most critical hour, Denonville was recalled and Count Frontenac reappointed governor. He reached the colony in 1689 and attempted to conclude a peace with the Iroquois, but they were too much elated over their own victories, to listen to any proposal, hence the governor prepared for war. "As France and England," says Marcus Wilson, "were now engaged in war, in consequence of the English revolution of 1688, Frontenac resolved to strike the first blow against the English, on whose support the enemy so strongly relied. In 1690 he fitted out three expeditions, one against New York, a second against New Hampshire, and a third against the province of Maine. The party destined for New York, fell upon Corlaer or Schenectady, and completely surprised, pillaged and burned the place. The second party burned the village of Salmon Falls, on the borders of New Hampshire, and the third destroyed the settlement of Casco, in Maine. The old allies of the French, reassured by these successes, began to resume their former energy — the remote post of Michilimackinac was strengthened, and the French were gradually gaining ground, when, from a new quarter, a storm arose which threatened the very existence of their power in America. The northern English colonies, roused by

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the atrocities of the French and their savage allies, hastily prepared two expeditions against the French, one by sea from Boston against Quebec, and the other by land from New York against Montreal. The first, under Sir William Phipps, captured all the French posts in Acadia and Newfoundland, with several on the St. Lawrence, and had arrived within a few days' sail of Quebec before any tidings of its approach had been received. The fortifications of the city were hastily strengthened, and when the summons to surrender was received, it was returned with a message of defiance. After an unnecessary delay of two days, a landing was effected, but the attacks both by land and by water were alike unsuccessful, and the English were finally reduced to the mortifying necessity of abandoning the place, and leaving their cannon and ammunition in the hands of the enemy. The expedition against Montreal was alike unsuccessful. In 1691, the settlements on the Sorel were attacked by the Mohawks and English under the command of Major Schuyler, who, after making hard attempts were compelled to withdraw. This left the Governor of New France without any fears for the safety of the colony.

12.—Several years of political strife now ensued, but when the insolence of the savages could be endured no longer, Frontenac marched a large force into their country. He left Montreal in the summer of 1696, and proceeded to Fort Frontenac, from whence he marched to the country of the Onondagas, when he found the enemy had retreated, having first burnt their villages. He was sorely harrassed in their retreat. The Indians continued the war until the conclusion of peace between France and England, when they negotiated a treaty with the French. Frontenac died in 1698, and was succeeded by Callieres. But in 1702 war again broke out between France and England, involving, of course, the American Colonies. The French on the one hand, in Europe, suffered defeat, which rendered it impossible for

that nation to send the needed assistance to New France; while on the other hand, the English, elated with repeated triumphs, embraced the design of conquering the French Colony in America. The Iroquois, although repeatedly solicited by both parties, maintained neutrality. The French directed their operations mainly against the New England Colonies. At length, however, the English, wearied of unsuccess, prepared a powerful armament under the command of Sir Horenden Walker, for the reduction of Canada. But, fortunately for the French, the squadron was wrecked near the mouth of the St. Lawrence. Meanwhile the French were having a terrible struggle in the west with the Outagamies, or Foxes, who projected a plan for the destruction of Detroit, and in which they failed only after many signs of success. Retreating from Detroit, the Foxes collected their forces on the Fox River of Green Bay, where they strongly fortified themselves; but an expedition being sent against them, they were obliged to capitulate. The remnant of the defeated nation, however, long carried on a ceaseless and harrassing warfare against the French, and rendered insecure their communication with the settlements on the Mississippi.

13. — The Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 put an end to hostilities in America, after which, or until the war in which Canada fell, the Colony enjoyed comparative peace. Charlevoix, who visited the principal settlements in 1720 and 1721, gives the best account of their condition at this period. Quebec then contained a population of about 7,000 inhabitants but the entire population of the Colony at that period is unknown. The settlements were confined, principally, to the borders of the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Quebec, extending a short distance below the latter place. Above Montreal were only detached stations for defense and trade. At Fort Frotenac and Niagara, a few soldiers were stationed, but there were apparently no traces of cultivation in the vicinity of

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either of those places. A feeble settlement was found at Detroit, and at Michilimackinac a fort, surrounded by an Indian village. On the whole, however, it appears that, west of Montreal, there was nothing at this time which could be called a colony. From this time to the war in which Wolf and Montcalm fell at Quebec, there is nothing of great importance to record in the history of Canada, so condensed as this one, except that the French were not slack in securing the friendship of the Indians, by which they were the better prepared for the struggle in which they lost their Colony. The other events are thus summed up: In 1731, the French erected Fort Frederic (now Crown Point), on the western shore of Lake Champlain, but surrendered it to the English, under Gen. Amherst, in 1759. In 1756, they erected the fortress of Ticonderoga, at the mouth of the outlet of Lake George. Here occurred the memorable defeat of Gen. Abercrombie, in 1758. During the administration of the Marquis du Quesne, in 1754, the fort bearing his name was erected, at the confluence of the Alleghany and Monongahela, where Pittsburgh now stands. The French were likewise encroaching upon Nova Scotia, which had been ceded to England by the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, and in the west they were attempting to complete a line of forts which should confine the British Colonists to the territory east of the Alleghanies. These encroachments were the principal cause which led to the "French and Indian war,"—a war which resulted in the fall of Canada, and by which the exercise of French power over it was exchanged for that of the English. An account of this war has already been given in this work, from page 114 to 120 inclusive.

English Canada. 1760-1840.

14.—The history of Canada under English rule is a subject quite familiar to the general reader. We need therefore sketch only the more important features. The Marquis de Vaudreuil Cavagnal, Governor of

Canada, when the articles of capitulation were entered into at Quebec, secured liberal stipulations for the good treatment of the inhabitants, the free exercise of the Catholic faith, and the preservation of property belonging to religious communities. "The change of dominion produced no material change in the condition of the country. All offices, however, were conferred on British subjects, who then consisted only of military men and a few traders, many of whom were poorly qualified for the situations they were called to occupy. They showed a bigoted spirit, and an offensive contempt of the old French inhabitants; but the new Governor, Murray, strenuously protected the latter, and, by his impartial conduct, secured their confidence and esteem."

15.—When the war of the American Revolution broke out, the French Canadians maintained their allegiance to the British Crown. This condition of political feeling so essential to Canada, was further secured by the "Quebec Act," passed in 1774, which changed the English civil law, and introduced in its place the ancient French system, with the exception of the criminal branch, which continued to be similar to that of England. The French language was also directed to be employed in the courts of law, and other changes were made which gratified the pride of the French population, although they were far from giving universal satisfaction, especially as they were not attended with the grant of a representative assembly. Only one serious attempt, on the part of the Americans, was made during the Revolution, to reduce Canada, after which the Canadians united with the British, and, assisted by the Six Nations (with the exception of the Oneidas), carried on a harassing warfare against the frontier settlements of New York. The issue of the war of the Revolution was attended with considerable advantage to Canada. A large number of disbanded British soldiers, and loyalists from the United States, who had sought refuge in the

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British territories, received liberal grants of land in the Upper Province, bordering on the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario.

16. — These new settlers were termed "United Empire Loyalists," and were greatly encouraged by the English government. They received not only a full supply of land, but also the necessary farming utensils, building materials, and even subsistence for two years. These inducements not only increased the settlements in Canada, but the appearance of it. A wonderful change was soon produced, and a great extent of wilderness converted into fruitful fields. Kingston, on the site of Fort Frontenac, rose into commercial importance, and was for a long time the capital of Ontario. The town of York, afterward Toronto, founded soon after by Gen. Simcoe, rose rapidly, and everywhere Canada moved forward in prosperity. With this advancement came a demand for representative government, and in 1791, Canada was divided into two provinces, called Upper and Lower, afterwards Ontario and Quebec, over which representative governments were established on a British constitution basis. A Governor was appointed for each province, and to him was given the same power for convoking, proroguing and dissolving the representative assembly that the King himself enjoyed in England. A Legislative Council, with members appointed by the King for life, was also established. There was also an Executive Council appointed by the King, to advise and assist the Governor in the performance of his executive duties. The representative assembly in each province had but little direct power. It formed a concurrent body in the general legislature. Each provincial government had control over all matters pertaining to the province, excepting the subjects of religion, its ministers and revenues and the waste lands belonging to the crown. Acts affecting these subjects could not be valid without the sanction of the King and Parliament of England.

17.—In 1797, Gen. Prescott was made Governor of Lower Canada, and in 1803, a decision of the Chief Justice of Montreal declared slavery unlawful in that country, and a few individuals held in bondage were freed. "In 1807, apprehensions being felt of a war with the United States, Sir James Craig, an officer of distinction, was sent out as Governor General of the British Provinces. The principal events of the war of 1812, so far as they belong to Canadian history, have already been related in another portion of this work. Soon after the close of that war, internal dissensions began to disturb the quiet of the two provinces, but more particularly that of Lower Canada. So early as 1807, the Assembly of the Province made serious complaints of an undue influence of other branches of government over their proceedings; but in vain they demanded that the judges, who were dependent upon the executive and removable by him, should be expelled from their body."

18.—The administration of Sir Drummond, in 1815, was marked by a discontent among the people that found emphatic expression. He was succeeded in the office of Governor-General by Sir John Sherbrooke, who reached Canada in 1816, and by whom harmony was restored to the provinces. He effected a compromise with the Assembly as to the support of the government. But, in 1818, this Governor was succeeded by the Duke of Richmond, who reversed the pacific policy of his predecessor, and exercised a tyrannical rule. However, in 1819, the life of the Duke suddenly terminated in an attack of hydrophobia, and, in the following year, Lord Dalhousie was appointed to succeed him. He immediately became involved in the same difficulties with the Assembly that his predecessor had encountered, and, assuming even a higher tone, demanded a large sum as a permanent annual grant for the uses of the government. But the Assembly still adhered to their purposes until a compromise was agreed upon. There seemed to be

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a growing dislike to the tyranny of the Governor-General by the people, and, in 1823, the popular cause was strengthened by the insolvency of the Receiver-General or Treasurer of the Province, who proved to be indebted to the public over \$400,000.

19. — Lord Dalhousie was absent in 1825, during which time the government was administered by Sir Francis Burton, who, by yielding nearly all the points in dispute, succeeded in pacifying the Assembly. But every concession made by the Governor to the Assembly only created further demands on the part of that body, and, on the return of Lord Dalhousie, in 1826, the dissensions between the Assembly and the Governor became violent. On the meeting of the Assembly in the following year, Mr. Papineau was elected Speaker. He was the leader of the opposition to the government, and the Governor refused to sanction his appointment. The house continued obstinate, and the result was, no session was held during the following winter. In 1828, a petition, signed by 87,000 residents of Canada, was presented to the King, complaining of the conduct of Lord Dalhousie, and also his predecessors, and demanding compliance with the policy of the Assembly. The petition was referred to the House of Commons, and that body favored its demands. This report was received by the Canadians with the greatest satisfaction, and their joy was increased when, near the close of the same year, Sir James Kempt was sent out as governor, with instructions to carry the new policy into effect. The judges, although they refused to resign their places in the Assembly, withdrew from its sittings; and seats in the executive council were even offered to Neilson, Papineau and other popular leaders.

20. — Lord Aylmer succeeded to the government in 1830, giving assurances that he would carry out the liberal policy of the Assembly. The home government, however, had instructed him that certain casual revenues, arising from the sale of lands, the cutting of

timber and other sources, were still to be considered as belonging to the crown, and were to be appropriated chiefly to the payment of the stipends of the clergy of the Established Church. When these instructions became known, the designs of government met with violent opposition, and the Assembly declared that "under no circumstances, and upon no consideration whatever, would it abandon or compromise its claim of control over the whole public revenue." A long petition was drawn up, setting forth the grievances of the people. It received the indorsement of the Governor, and soon after the British Parliament conferred upon the Provincial Assembly full control over the most important revenues. But, in turn, permanent salaries were demanded for the judges, the Governor and a few of the chief executive officers. "The Assembly consented to make the required provision for the judges, but on the condition that the casual revenues, which had been sought to be reserved to the crown, should be appropriated for this purpose. This condition, however, the home government refused to accede to. A large majority of the Assembly voted against making a permanent provision for the Governor and other executive officers, on the ground that the executive, not being dependent on the representatives of the people for a naval and military establishment, would, in case of such permanent settlement, have been entirely free from that provincial control and dependence essential to the public security and welfare."

21.—The Province, in and through its representatives, was now in direct conflict with the Crown. The Assembly now began to name conditions for the payment of salaries, and demanded that the legislature appointed by the Crown should be abolished, and a new one instituted that should compare somewhat with the United States Senate, with members elected by popular vote. In 1833, a petition urging this measure was transmitted to the King, and in reply the British

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ministry not only declared the proposed change dis- loyal, but hinted at the possibility that events might unhappily force upon Parliament the exercise of its su- preme authority to put a stop to the internal dissen- sions of Canada, or even to modify the charter of the Canadas. This intelligence threw the Assembly into a fury, and it refused to pass any measures cooperat- ing with the ministry, and the session of 1834 was passed in the preparation of another petition or remon- strance, setting forth the grievance of the provinces, and closing with a peremptory demand for an elective legislative council. Meanwhile affairs changed in England, and in 1835, the Earl of Gosford was sent out as Governor of Canada. He at once promised, in an indirect way, the speedy performance of all that the Assembly demanded. But if these promises or inti- mations produced any good feeling, it was speedily swept away when his real instructions from the home government were made known. Lord Gosford probably concealed his instructions from the Crown, with a view to obtaining the needed funds, but his designs were discovered before he gained his point. Sir Francis Bond Head, who had been sent out as Governor of Upper Canada, was the means of disclosing the in- structions to both Governors. The British ministry had proclaimed that "the King was most unwilling to admit, as open to debate, the question whether one of the vital principles of the provincial government shall undergo alteration."

22. — The excitement that followed these develop- ments was intense; "the Assembly not only com- plained of disappointment, but charged the Governor with perfidy; the customary supplies were withheld, and no provision was made for the public service. In the autumn of 1836, the majority of the Assembly, in an address presented to the Governor, declared their positive adherence to their former demands for an elective council — maintained that they themselves, in opposition to the then existing legislative council, 'the

representatives of the tory party,' were the only legitimate and authorized organ of the people — and finally, they expressed their resolution to grant no more supplies until the great work of justice and reform should be completed." A crisis had now come!

23. — Appearances declared that violent measures would ensue. The provincial Assembly were firm in their radical demands, while the Ministry were unwilling to concede the monarchical prerogatives. "Early in 1837, the British Parliament, by a vote of 318 to 56, declared the inexpediency of making the legislative council elective by the people, and of rendering the executive council responsible to the Assembly. Intelligence of this vote occasioned violent commotions in the Canadas, and various meetings of the people were held, in which it was affirmed that the decision of Parliament had extinguished all hopes of justice, and that no farther attempts should be made to obtain redress from that quarter. A general convention was proposed, to consider what farther measures were advisable, and a recommendation was made to discontinue the use of British manufactures, and of all articles paying taxes."

24. — The situation now became unpleasant, and Gov. Gosford fearing the influence of Papineau, early in June, 1837, called upon the governor of New Brunswick for a regiment of troops, and issued a proclamation warning the people against all attempts to seduce them from their allegiance. Meetings of the loyalists were also held in Montreal and Quebec, condemning the violent proceedings of the Assembly, and deprecating both the objects and the measures of the so called patriot party. In August, Lord Gosford called a meeting of the provincial legislature, and submitted measures for amending the legislative council, but the representatives adhered to their former purposes of withholding supplies until all their grievances should be redressed when the governor expressing his regret at measures which he consider-

were the only legitimate people — and finally, grant no more subsidies and reform should come!

at violent measures. The Assembly were firm in their Ministry were unwilling to surrender their prerogatives. "Early in the year a vote of 318 to making the legislature, and of rendering the Assembly. The violent commotions of the people, and the decided all hopes of justice, and be made to obtain a general convention was for measures were adopted as made to discontinue, and of all arti-

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ed a virtual annihilation of the constitution, prorogued the Assembly." A resort to arms seems now to have been resolved upon by the popular leaders of the people, as against the government of Great Britain, and, it was no doubt hoped by this class that the struggle would result in complete independence. A central committee was formed with headquarters at Montreal, and an association known as "Sons of Liberty" was organized by this management, which marched in procession through the streets, demonstrating a feeling of disloyalty, or dislike to the British yoke, and calling upon the people to rally round the standard of freedom.

25. — Violent demonstrations against the crown officers were now witnessed in many quarters. In the county of Two Mountains, north of the Ottawa and adjoining Montreal on the west, the people deposed their magistrates, and reorganized the militia under officers of their own choice, thereby overriding British authority in that section. These proceedings were soon after imitated in other places. In six counties southwest of the St. Lawrence, all persons holding office under the crown were forced to resign their situations or leave the country. Loyalist associations were also formed in opposition to the Freedom party, and these backed by the Catholic clergy, exhorted the people to loyalty. In Montreal the "Sons of Liberty," were attacked in the streets and dispersed by the Loyalists, and, although none were killed, many were seriously wounded. The office of the *Vindicator* was destroyed and the residence of Papineau, the great opposition agitator, was set on fire by the loyalists, but was saved from the flames after great agitation. Exaggerated reports of these doings spread through the country creating the wildest excitement. The disloyal movement was now assuming such shape that the government issued warrants for the arrest of twenty-six of the most prominent agitators, of whom seven were members of the Assembly, including the popular

Papineau, the speaker of that body. Several were arrested, but the speaker could not be found. Considerable opposition was put forth against the parties endeavoring to make the arrests, and many rescues were effected. "In the latter part of November, strong detachments of government troops, commanded by Cols. Gore and Wetherall, were sent to attack armed bodies of insurgents, assembled under Papineau, Brown and Neilson, at the villages of St. Denis and St. Charles on the Sorel. Col. Gore proceeded against St. Denis, which he attacked with great spirit, but was repulsed with a loss of ten killed, ten wounded, and six missing. Col. Wetherall was more successful. Although St. Charles was defended by a thousand men, the place was carried after a severe engagement, in which the insurgents lost nearly three hundred in killed and wounded. This affair suppressed the insurrection in that quarter. The peasantry, panic-stricken, threw down their arms; Neilson was taken prisoner, and Brown and Papineau sought safety by escaping to the United States."

26.—The work of suppressing the insurrection continued. In December, 1837, thirteen hundred regular and volunteer troops were sent against the districts of Two Mountains and Terrebonne, which were still in a state of rebellion. "At St. Eustache an obstinate stand was made by the insurgents, who were finally defeated with severe loss. Numbers of the inhabitants were remorselessly massacred, and their beautiful village burned. The village of St. Benoit, which had been the chief seat of insurrection, surrendered without resistance, but such was the rage of the loyalists, who had been plundered and driven out of the country, that they reduced a large portion of the village to ashes. Several of the patriot leaders were taken, and at the close of the year 1837 the whole province of Lower Canada was again in a state of tranquillity."

27.—But the war was not confined to Quebec or Lower Canada. While these incidents of strife were

Several were arrested. Considerable numbers of the parties engaged in many rescues were taken in November, strong detachments commanded by the militia proceeded to attack armed bands under Papineau, and those of St. Denis and proceeded against them with great spirit, but they were killed, ten wounded, and were more successful. They were followed by a thousand men in a severe engagement, and three hundred in the suppression of the insurrection in the peasantry, panic-stricken. Neilson was taken and sought safety by

the insurrection continued hundred regular troops against the districts of which were still in a state of an obstinate resistance, who were finally persuaded of the inhabitants of their beautiful village of Benoit, which had been surrendered without the aid of the loyalists, and out of the country, and of the village to the militia were taken, and the whole province of tranquillity." confined to Quebec or districts of strife were

transpiring in the lower province, events of great importance took place in Upper Canada. A discontented party had arisen there, demanding reforms quite as distasteful to Great Britain as those urged in Lower Canada, and in 1836 the assembly had stopped the ordinary supplies, but in the following year, when a new election for members was held, the influence of the governor, Sir Francis Head, succeeded in causing the election of a majority of members friendly to the existing government. "From this time tranquillity prevailed until the breaking out of the insurrection in the lower province, when the leaders of the popular party, who had long desired a separation from Great Britain, seized the opportunity for putting their plans in execution. During the night of the 5th of December, 1837, about five hundred men, under the command of Mackenzie, assembled at Montgomery's Tavern, four miles from Toronto, with the view of taking the city by surprise. Several persons proceeding to the city were taken prisoners, but one of them escaping, the alarm was given, and by morning three hundred loyalists were mustered under arms, and the design of attacking the place was abandoned." On the 7th the loyalists marched to the attack, and the insurgents were easily driven back and many of them made prisoners.

28. — The excitement now spread along the border of the United States. Mackenzie, having fled to Buffalo, succeeded in raising there a great enthusiasm for the cause of Canada. A small force was quickly raised, and Van Rensselaer, Sutherland and others presented themselves as military leaders. This force took possession of Navy Island, in the Niagara Channel, and erected fortifications on it, which were mounted by thirteen pieces of cannon. A thousand recruits soon flocked to this post. Col. McNab soon arrived opposite the island, but without the facilities for crossing the channel or successfully cannonading the fortifications. These scenes and incidents drew around them many

Americans, who were disposed to espouse the cause of the "patriots," but President Van Buren issued two successive proclamations, warning the people of the penalties to which an active participation in the conflict would make them liable. Gen. Scott was appointed to the command on the frontier, with instructions to maintain a strict neutrality. Meanwhile a small steamer, named the *Caroline*, which had been employed by the insurgents in the channel for conveying supplies, was attacked in the night by Capt. Drew, while moored to the American shore. One of the crew was killed, and the vessel, after being towed to the middle of the stream, was set on fire. The burning craft was carried over the falls. This act, having occurred in United States waters, occasioned great excitement throughout the Union, and led to an angry correspondence between the British and United States Ministers.

29. — After the arrival of Gen. Scott on the frontier, the insurrection in that vicinity was soon quelled. "Effective measures were taken to prevent further supplies and recruits from reaching Navy Island, when, the force of the assailants continually increasing, and a severe cannonade having been commenced by them, the insurgents evacuated their position on the 14th of January. Van Rensselaer and Mackenzie, escaping to the United States, were arrested by the American authorities, but admitted to bail. A number of the fugitives fled to the west, and under their leader, Sutherland, formed an establishment on an island in the Detroit Channel. After meeting with some reverses, this party also voluntarily disbanded. Tranquillity was now restored to both Canadas — Parliament made some changes in the constitution of the lower province — and in May, 1838, the Earl of Durham arrived at Quebec, as Governor-General of all British America. Having taken the responsibility of banishing to Bermuda, under penalty of death in case of return, a number of prisoners taken in the late insurrection, and charged with the crime of high treason, his conduct

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met with some censure in the British Parliament, which induced him to resign his commission, and on the 1st of November he sailed from Quebec, on his return to England."

30. — Soon after Sir Francis Head, the Governor of the upper province, left for England, several bands of Americans, invited by the "patriots," crossed the Niagara Channel, but were driven back by the militia. A party also crossed near Detroit, but, after losing a few of their number, were compelled to return. On the 3d of November, only two days after the departure of the Earl of Durham, a fresh rebellion, which had been organizing during the summer along the whole line of the American frontier, broke out in the southern counties of Montreal District. At Napierville, west of the Sorel, Dr. Neilson and other leaders had collected about 4,000 men, several hundred of whom were detached to open a communication with their friends on the American side of the line. These were attacked and repulsed by a party of loyalists, who afterwards posted themselves in Odeltown chapel, where they were in turn attacked by a large body of the insurgents, headed by Neilson himself, but after a severe engagement the latter were obliged to retreat with considerable loss.

31. — But while these movements were going on, Sir James McDonnell was marching at the head of seven regiments of the line upon the insurgents. So rapid and effectual were his movements that in less than two weeks the whole rebellion in Lower Canada was suppressed. Not long after these events several hundred Americans sailed from the vicinity of Sacketts Harbor, and landed near Prescott, where they were joined by a force of "patriots." The party was promptly attacked by the government troops, but the latter were repulsed; but being reinforced, the invaders were repulsed or taken prisoners. Later in the year a party of Americans crossed from Detroit, and after creating considerable disturbance, they were defeated and

dispersed. A number of prisoners were ordered to be shot by the Canadian authorities immediately after the engagement. These events closed the year 1838, and were the closing acts of the rebellion. During the struggle the American government had exerted itself to maintain neutrality, but it was evident that the feeling of the people of the United States was in warm sympathy with the Canadians who fought for liberty.

32. — On the 23d of July, 1840, the British Parliament, after much bitter discussion, passed an act by which the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were united into one, under the name of the Province of Canada. The form of government was but little changed — the Governor was appointed by Her Majesty, a Legislative Council, and a Representative Assembly. The old Executive council was abolished. "The members of the Legislative Council were to consist of such persons, not being fewer than twenty, as the Governor should summon, with Her Majesty's permission, each member to hold his seat during life. The members of the Representative Assembly were to be elected by the people, but no person was eligible to an election who was not possessed of land, free from all incumbrances, to the value of five hundred pounds sterling. The duties and revenues of the two former provinces were consolidated into one fund, from which seventy-five thousand pounds sterling were made payable annually for the expenses of the government. After being subject to these charges, the surplus of the revenue fund might be appropriated as the Legislature saw fit, but still in accordance with the recommendations of the Governor." We turn, at this point, to bring forward the history of other provinces, in order that we may bring ourselves to a point where we may take up the Dominion, which was constituted in 1867.

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PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

I. SURFACE.

1. — The coasts of Nova Scotia are indented with a great number of excellent bays and harbors, and between Halifax and the Gut of Canso alone there are between twenty and thirty commodious harbors, ten of which will accommodate ocean ships. The principal inlets are Chedabucto Bay, at the entrance of the Gut of Canso; Halifax Harbor and Mayaret's and Mayhon Bays, on the southwest; St. Mary's Bay, Annapolis Basin, Mines Basin, and Chignecto Basin, on the Bay of Fundy; and Pictou Harbor on the Northumberland Strait. Among the most prominent headlands are Cape Canso, at the mouth of the Gut of Canso; Cape Sable, the southeastern extremity of the Province, and Cape Chignecto, at the end of a peninsula putting out into the Bay of Fundy from the Isthmus which connects Nova Scotia with the mainland, and having Mines Basin on the one side and Chignecto Bay on the other. The coasts throughout are lined with islands, close to which there is deep water. On the Atlantic Coast the islands and rocks form a very good breakwater.

2. — Sable Island, about 85 miles from Nova Scotia, but considered as belonging to it, is twenty-five miles long and one and a quarter miles wide. This island is surrounded by an extensive bank and consists of but little else than a sandy waste. It lies in the track of vessels sailing between Europe and America, and is the scene of frequent shipwrecks, a party of wreckers are maintained on it by the provincial government.

3. — The principal rivers of Nova Scotia are the Annapolis and the Shubenacadie, flowing into the Bay of Fundy; the East, West and Middle rivers, into the harbor of Pictou on Northumberland Strait, all of

which are navigable; and the Avon, Havre, Medway, Mersey, Clyde, Shelburne, Tusket and St. Mary. The Shubenacadie Canal, together with a chain of lakes, forms an inland communication from Halifax to Cobequid Bay. There are numerous lakes, but with the exception of Rossignal, which is thirty miles long, they are all small. The surface is undulating, and though there are no mountains, ranges of hills of considerable size take their place and give diversity to the landscape. The highest point, Ardoise Hill, is only 810 feet above the level of the sea. The soil varies much in fertility.

II. HISTORY.

1605-1807.

1.—In 1603, the King of France granted to De Monts, a gentleman of distinction, the sovereignty of the country from the 40th to the 46th degree of north latitude. Sailing with two vessels in the spring of 1604, he arrived at Nova Scotia in May, and spent the summer in trade with the Indians and examining the coasts to find a suitable place for a settlement. After spending the winter and suffering much on the coast of New Brunswick, in the spring of 1605, De Monts removed to a place on the bay of Fundy, and here was formed the first permanent French settlement in America. The settlement was named Port Royal, and the whole country, embracing New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and the adjacent islands, was called Acadia. The settlement at Port Royal was invaded, in 1614, by Samuel Argall, under the authority of the colony of Virginia, and reduced, which completed the conquest of Acadia by the British. France made no complaint of Argall's aggression, beyond demanding the restoration of the prisoners, nor did Britain take any immediate measures for retaining her conquests. But, in 1621, Sir William Alexander, afterwards Earl of Stirling, obtained from the King, James I, a grant of Nova Scotia and the adjacent islands, and, in 1625, the commission was renewed by Charles I, and ex-

n, Havre, Medway, and St. Mary. The chain of lakes, from Halifax to Cobecques, but with the extremes long, they are g, and though there of considerable size to the landscape. only 810 feet above es much in fertility.

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tended so as to embrace all Canada and the northern portions of the United States.

2.—In 1623, a vessel was dispatched with settlers, but they found the whole country in the possession of the French, and were obliged to return to England without founding a settlement. In 1628, while the war with France was in progress, Sir David Kirk, who had been sent out for that purpose, succeeded in reducing Nova Scotia, and not only so, but in the following year, as we have seen, succeeded in the conquest of all Canada, but the whole country was restored to the French by the treaty of 1632. At this time the French court divided Nova Scotia between three individuals, La Tour, Denys and Rozillai, and appointed the latter Commander-in-Chief of the colony. He was succeeded by Charnise, between whom and La Tour a quarrel arose, which caused great trouble. At length Charnise died, and the trouble was for a time suppressed by La Tour's marrying the widow of his enemy; but not long after, a creditor of Charnise appeared, named La Bargne, and with an armed force endeavored to reduce Denys and La Tour. He overcame several important posts, and was marching against St. John when a formidable opposition put a stop to his conquests. Cromwell had assumed the reins of government, and, in 1654, England declared war against France, and dispatched an expedition against Nova Scotia, which met with success, bringing the whole country under England, La Tour submitted to the new yoke, and, in connection with Sir Thomas Zemple, obtained a grant of the greater portion of the peninsula. Sir Thomas bought out La Tour, soon after, and spent \$30,000 in fortifications, which greatly improved the commerce of the country; but all his fair prospects were swept away by the treaty of Breda, in 1667, by which Nova Scotia was again ceded to France.

3.—The French at once took possession of the colony, which, as yet, contained no very large settle-

ments—the population, in 1680, not exceeding 900. The fisheries, the only profitable industry, were conducted by the English. The forts were few and weak, and two of them were plundered by pirates. In this situation, when the war broke out in 1689, Acadia appeared an easy conquest, and the achievement of this was given to Massachusetts. "In May, 1690, Sir William Phipps, with 700 men, appeared before Port Royal, which soon surrendered; but he merely dismantled the fortress, and then left the country a prey to pirates. A French Commander arriving in November of the following year, the country was reconquered simply by pulling down the English and hoisting the French flag. Soon after, the Bostonians, aroused by the depredations of the French and Indians on the frontiers, sent out a body of 500 men, who soon regained the whole country, with the exception of one fort on the River St. John. Acadia now remained in possession of the English until the treaty of Ryswick, in 1697, when it was again restored to France."

4.—The peace of 1697 was soon followed by war. War was declared against France and Spain, and it was again resolved to reduce Nova Scotia, and again the undertaking was intrusted to Massachusetts. This time the invading party was assured that what was gained by arms would not be sacrificed by treaty. "The first expedition, despatched in 1704, met with little resistance, but did little more than ravage the country. In 1707, a force of 1,000 soldiers was sent against Port Royal, but the French commandant conducted the defense of the place with so much ability, that the assailants were obliged to retire with considerable loss. In 1710, a much larger force, under the command of Gen. Nicholson, appeared before Port Royal, but the French commandant having but a feeble garrison, and declining to attempt a resistance, obtained an honorable capitulation. Port Royal was now named Annapolis. From this period Nova Scotia has been permanently annexed to the British crown."

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5.— But the Indians of Nova Scotia, like those of the other portions of northern America, remained fast friends to the French, even after the French cause was hopeless and the country had passed forever into the hands of the English. They were determined to remain independent: hence they carried on a vigorous war against the English. In 1720 they plundered a large establishment at Canso, carrying off fish and merchandise to the amount of \$10,000; and in 1723 they captured at the same place seventeen sail of vessels, with numerous prisoners, nine of whom they deliberately and cruelly put to death. The Indians still continued hostile, and the British inhabitants of Nova Scotia were obliged to solicit aid from Massachusetts, and in 1728 that province sent a body of troops against the principal village of the Norridge-wocks, on the Kennebec. The enemy were surprised and defeated with great slaughter, and among those who fell victims to the contest, was the missionary, Father Ralle, who had resided among them for over forty years. This severe punishment awed the natives, so that for many years the English settlements of Nova Scotia enjoyed tranquillity.

6.— But when, in 1744, war broke out again between France and England, the French Governor of Cape Breton immediately attempted the conquest of Nova Scotia. He reduced Canso, and laid seige to Annapolis, but was unsuccessful. The English, on the contrary, succeeded in taking Louisburg, the then Gibraltar of America, but when peace was concluded, by the Treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, the island of Cape Breton was restored to France. After this treaty Nova Scotia began to be the object of attention of England. The peninsula had hitherto been settled almost exclusively by the French. In order to introduce a greater proportion of English settlers, it was proposed to colonize in Nova Scotia a large number of the soldiers who had been discharged in consequence of the disbanding of the army, and in the lat-

ter part of June, 1749, a company of nearly 4,000 adventurers of this class was added to the population of the colony. To every soldier were given fifty acres of land, with ten additional acres for every member of his family. Officers had a larger allowance, and every person above a captain received six hundred acres, with proportionate increase for the members of families. These settlers were conveyed free of expense, and furnished with ammunition and with utensils for clearing their lands and erecting dwellings, and were maintained twelve months at the expense of the government.

7. — The emigrants were landed at Chebucto Harbor under the charge of the Hon. Edward Cornwallis, whom the King had appointed their Governor. At this place they at once commenced the building of the town of Halifax, which was named in honor of the nobleman who had the greatest share in founding the colony. The place selected for the new town contained the advantages of one of the finest harbors in America. The colony "was considered of so great importance to England, that parliament continued to make annual grants for it, which, in 1755, had amounted to the enormous sum of nearly two millions of dollars. But although the English settlers were thus firmly established, they soon found themselves unpleasantly situated. The limits of Nova Scotia had never been defined, by the treaties between France and England, with sufficient clearness to prevent disputes about boundaries, and each party was now striving to obtain possession of a territory claimed by the other. The government of France contended that the British dominion, according to the treaty which ceded Nova Scotia, extended only over the present peninsula of the same name; while, according to the English, it extended over all that large tract of country formerly known as Acadia, including the present province of New Brunswick. Admitting the English claim, France would be deprived of a portion of territory of

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great value to her, materially affecting her control over
the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence, and greatly
endangering the security of her Canadian posses-
sions.¹⁵

8. — No sooner was it apparent that the English in-
tended to colonize the whole peninsula, than the
French, jealous of their former enemies, sought to
prejudice the Indians against them, "in the hope of
effectually preventing the English from extending
their plantations, and, perhaps, of inducing them to
abandon their settlements entirely. The Indians even
made attacks upon Halifax, and the colonists could
not move into the adjoining woods, singly or in small
parties, without danger of being shot and scalped, or
taken prisoners. In support of the French claims, the
Governor of Canada sent detachments, which, aided
by strong bodies of Indians and a few French Acadi-
ans, erected the fort of Beau Sejour on the neck of the
peninsula of Nova Scotia, and another on the River
St. John, on pretense that these places were within the
government of Canada. Encouraged by these der-
onstrations, the French inhabitants around the bay of
Chignecto rose in open rebellion against the English
government, and in the spring of 1750, the Governor
of Nova Scotia sent Maj. Lawrence with a few men to
reduce them to obedience. At his approach, the
French abandoned their dwellings, and placed them-
selves under the protection of the commandant of Fort
Beau Sejour, when Lawrence, finding the enemy too
strong for him, was obliged to return without accom-
plishing his object." Not long after, Maj. Lawrence
was again sent out with 1,000 men; but after doing
the enemy but little harm, he was obliged to retire.
To keep the French in subjection, the English built a
fort on the narrow strip of land near the isthmus, con-
necting the peninsula with New Brunswick, which
they called Fort Lawrence. The French erected addi-
tional forts in the disputed territory, and vessels, with
troops and military stores, were sent to Canada and

Cape Breton, until the English became alarmed at the critical situation in which they were placed.

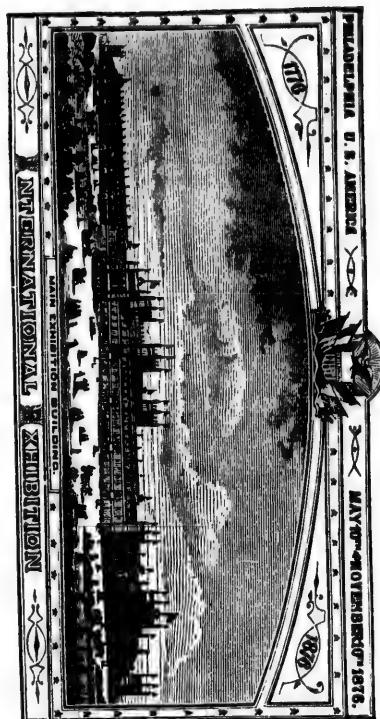
9. — But in 1755, Admiral Boscawen commenced the war which had long been anticipated by both parties, by capturing on the coast of Newfoundland two French vessels with eight companies of soldiers on board, and about \$35,000 in specie. With the commencement of hostilities, a force was sent out from New England under Col. Monckton and Winslow to dislodge the enemy, and possess their newly built fortifications. The troops set out from Boston on the 20th of May, and after a safe voyage, anchored in Chignecto Bay, about five miles from Fort Lawrence. On arriving at the river then called Marsaquah, they found their progress opposed by the enemy, four hundred and fifty of whom occupied a block house, while the others were securely posted behind a heavy breast-work of timber. Having dislodged both of these forces, Col. Monckton advanced to Fort Beau Sejour, which he subdued after four days hard fighting. He changed the name of the fort to that of Fort Cumberland, and left it in charge of a British garrison. He then reduced another French post on the Gaspereau River, which flows into Bay Veste. Here he obtained a large store of provisions and stores. The success of this expedition was in producing tranquillity in all Acadia, then claimed by the English and called Nova Scotia.

10. — But the situation of the people of Nova Scotia, at this time was full of danger. The war in Europe opened adverse to the British arms, and Braddock had been defeated in his invasion of the French outposts in the northwest. The French cause seemed to prosper, and it was believed that Nova Scotia would be invaded. At this time the French Acadians amounted to 18,000. "They had," says an eminent writer, "cultivated a considerable extent of land, possessed about 60,000 head of cattle, had neat and comfortable dwellings, and lived in a state of plenty, but

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of great simplicity. They were a peaceful, industrious and amiable race, governed mostly by their pastors, who exercised a parental authority over them; they cherished a deep attachment to their native country, they had resisted every invitation to bear arms against it, and had invariably refused to take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain. Although the great body of these people remained tranquilly occupied in the cultivation of their lands, yet a few individuals had joined the Indians, and about 300 were taken in in the forts, in open rebellion against the government of the country. Under these circumstances, Governor Lawrence and his council, aided by Admirals Boscawen and Mostyn, assembled to consider what disposal of the Acadians the security of the country required. Their decision resulted in the determination to tear the whole of this people from their homes, and disperse them through the different British colonies, where they would be unable to unite in any offensive measures, and where they might in time become naturalized to the government. Their lands, houses, and cattle, were, without any alleged crime, declared to be forfeited; and they were allowed to carry with them only their money and household furniture, both of extremely small amount. Treachery was necessary to render this tyrannical scheme effective. The inhabitants of each district were commanded to meet at a certain place and day on urgent business, the nature of which was carefully concealed from them; and when they were all assembled, the dreadful mandate was pronounced, and only small parties of them were allowed to return for a short time to make the necessary preparations. They appear to have listened to their doom with unexpected resignation, making only mournful and solemn appeals, which were wholly disregarded. When, however, the moment of embarkation arrived, the young men who were placed in front, absolutely refused to move; and it required files of soldiers, with fixed

bayonets, to secure obedience. No arrangements had been made for their location elsewhere, nor was any compensation offered for the property of which they were deprived. They were merely thrown on the coast at different points, and compelled to trust to the charity of the inhabitants, who did not allow any of them to be absolutely starved. Still through hardships, distress, and change of climate, a great proportion of them perished. So eager was their desire to return, that those sent to Georgia had set out, and actually reached New York, when they were arrested. They addressed a pathetic representation to the English government, in which, quoting the most solemn treaties and declarations, they proved that their treatment had been as faithless as it was cruel. No attention, however, was paid to this document, and so guarded a silence was preserved by the government of Nova Scotia, upon the subject of the removal of the Acadians, that the records of the province make no allusions whatever to the event. Notwithstanding the barbarous diligence with which this mandate was executed, it is supposed that the number actually removed from the province did not exceed 7,000. The rest fled into the depths of the forests, or to the nearest French settlements, enduring incredible hardships. To guard against the return of the hapless fugitives, the government reduced to ashes their habitations and property, laying waste even their own lands, with a fury exceeding that of the most savage enemy. In one district, 236 houses were at once in a blaze. The Acadians, from the heart of the woods, beheld all they possessed consigned to destruction; yet they made no movement till the devastators wantonly set their chapel on fire. They then rushed forward in desperation, killed about thirty of the incendiaries, and then hastened back to their hiding places."

11.—At the close of the "French and Indian war," France was compelled to yield her possessions in North America to the English, and now the English

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government of the Province of Nova Scotia did all in its power to promote the general prosperity of the settlements, but after the fullest exertions had been made, the dreadful blank made by the banishment of the French was painfully visible. After the peace the French were allowed to return to their old homes, and occupy lands on taking the customary oaths, but no compensation was offered them for the property of which they had been plundered. However, a few did return, and in 1772, out of a French population of 18,000, that once occupied portions of Nova Scotia, but 2,000 remained. It should have been mentioned before, that in 1758, during the administration of Gov. Lawrence a legislative assembly was given to the people of Nova Scotia; and also, that in 1761 a treaty was made with the Indians by which they agreed to forever bury the hatchet, and to accept George III instead of the King of France as their great father.

12. — During the war of the revolution, Nova Scotia remained loyal to the British interests, and at the close of the war, the population of the province was greatly increased by the loyalist refugees from the United States. Many of these settled in what was soon after, in 1784, erected into the Province of New Brunswick. At the same time the island of Cape Breton which, since the capture of Louisburgh, in 1748, had been united with Nova Scotia, was made a separate colony. It remained under a separate government, but under the British crown, until 1820, when it was reunited to Nova Scotia, to which it still belongs. Since these events Nova Scotia has enjoyed a long period of peace, in which the province, with a popular government, partially representative and partially crown appointed, has grown in commercial importance. In 1867 the province became a part of the Dominion of Canada.

PROVINCE OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

I. SURFACE.

1. — The principal bays and harbors of New Brunswick are Bathurst Bay on the north coast, Miramichi Bay on the east, and Passamaquoddy Bay and St. John Harbor on the south. There are many rivers streams and lakes in the province. The largest river is the St. John, which has its source in a lake of the same name in Maine. After entering New Brunswick it flows, first, south, and then southeast, and falls into the Bay of Fundy, at St. John, after coursing over 450 miles. The principal tributary of the St. John, in New Brunswick, is the Tobique. The Miramichi courses through the central part of the Province in a northeast direction, and falls into the gulf of St. Lawrence. The Restigouche divides New Brunswick from Canada and falls into the Bay of Chaleur after a course of 200 miles. The Nepisiguit, 100 miles long, also flows into this bay. The Petitcodiac flows into the Bay of Fundy, and is navigable for over twenty-five miles for large vessels. There are a number of small lakes in the northern part of the Province, and in the southern portion there are a few somewhat larger. Among these are Grand Lake, twenty miles long and about five broad, and Washademoak Lake, twenty miles long and two broad. These are both between St. John and Fredericton.

2. — There are no mountains of any considerable height in New Brunswick, however, in the northern part of the Province, the country is quite mountainous. The scenery of this district is very beautiful. The surface of the southern portion is greatly broken by rocks and ravines, the coast being bold and rocky. East of the St. John river the soil is deep and very fertile, and originally covered with tall and dense forests. To the west of that river the soil is rather poorer, but there are many well watered valleys that

NEW BRUNSWICK.

ports of New Brunswick on the north coast, Miramichi Bay and St. John's Bay. There are many rivers. The largest river is the Saint John, which rises in a lake of the Province in New Brunswick, and flows to the southeast, and falls into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, after coursing over a large part of the Province. The Miramichi is another large river, which flows into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The Saint John is 100 miles long, and the Miramichi is 100 miles long. The Saint John is the largest river in the Province, and the Miramichi is the second largest. There are a number of other rivers in the Province, and they are all very fertile. The soil is deep and very rich, and the climate is healthy. The chief production of New Brunswick is timber, of which there are all the varieties indigenous to North America — the pine predominating.

II. HISTORY.

1783-1867.

1. — In our history of Nova Scotia, we have brought the history of New Brunswick forward until it was erected into a separate province in 1783. Previous to that erection, the French comprehended it under the title of New France, or the British held it under the name Nova Scotia. After Nova Scotia had been finally ceded to the English, the French set up a claim to New Brunswick, and, as we have seen, to defend their claims, they erected forts on the neck of the peninsula, and armed the Acadians and Indians, but, when all Canada had fallen into the hands of the British, and the peace of 1763 was concluded, all dissensions on this subject were ended. However, even after this, the country was left nearly unoccupied except by a few French, who had sought refuge among its forests to escape the heartless persecution of the English already described. In 1762, a few families settled at Maudslayi, about fifty miles up the St. John, and, in 1783, they numbered over 800. At the close of the war of the Revolution, several thousands of disbanded troops, who had been removed from New England, were located at Fredericton; and a party of Acadians who had settled there, were ordered to Madawaska to make room for them. These new colonists, however,

accustomed to all the comforts of civilized life, endured the most dreadful hardships when first placed in the midst of this wilderness; and it was only after severe suffering and toil that they could place their families in any degree of comfort.

2.— In 1785, Sir Guy Carleton was appointed Governor of the province. He exerted all the powers at his command to improve the condition of the province, which gradually but slowly advanced in prosperity. In 1803, he returned to England, after which, until 1817, the government of the colony was administered by Presidents. But the foundation of New Brunswick was at length laid in 1809, when heavy duties were levied on timber imported to England from the Baltic, while that from New Brunswick was left free. "The export of timber, from that period, continually increased, till it reached its height in 1825, when, in consequence of speculative overtrading, a severe reaction was experienced. Yet, since that event, this branch of industry has rallied, and become nearly as extensive as ever, while a new impulse has been given to the prosperity of the country by the arrival of foreign cultivators."

3.— From 1817 to 1823, the office of Lieutenant-Governor was held by Major General Smith, although during nearly the whole of the time the administration of affairs was intrusted to Presidents Chipman and Bliss. In August, 1824, the latter was succeeded by Sir Howard Douglass, to whose exertions the growth and prosperity of the province are greatly indebted. He was relieved by Sir Archibald Campbell, whose place was supplied, in 1837, by Major General Sir John Harvey, from Prince Edward Island. On the removal of the latter to Newfoundland, the office of Governor of New Brunswick was given to Sir W. G. Colebrooke. During the administration of Sir John Harvey, the disputed boundary between Maine and New Brunswick, which had long been a cause of controversy between Great Britain and the United

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tention was removed by a treaty which settled the
boundary in a manner satisfactory to both parties.
Since this period, New Brunswick has enjoyed a gov-
ernment similar to that of Nova Scotia, and has made
equal progress in commerce and wealth. In 1867, the
province, with Nova Scotia, entered into the confeder-
ation called the Dominion of Canada.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

I. SURFACE.

1. — This Island is separated from Nova Scotia and
New Brunswick by Northumberland Strait, which var-
ies in width from 9 to 30 miles. The shores are indented
by numerous bays, some of which extend so far inland
that the island is shaped into three peninsulas, con-
nected by narrow isthmuses, one of which is but
one mile wide. The coasts are bold and lined with
ed cliffs, ranging from 20 to 100 feet in height. The
rface is beautifully diversified and watered by nu-
erous springs and rivers. The soil is fertile, covered
with a thin layer of decayed vegetable matter, over a
light loam about a foot deep, below which is a solid
clay, resting upon sandstone. No valuable minerals
have been discovered. The climate is very healthy,
much milder than that of the adjoining continent.
The island was formerly covered by extensive forests,
but they have been nearly all removed, and there is
now only sufficient timber for industrial purposes. All
kinds of grain and fruit succeed well. Prince Edward
Island is one of the best fishing stations on the gulf of
St. Lawrence. The fishery is principally in the hands
of fishermen from the United States, who during the
fishing season employ from 200 to 300 vessels.

II. HISTORY.

1663-1867.

1. — It is claimed by some, though erroneously, that

this is the island that was discovered by Cabot in 1497, and by him called St. John. When France established a colony in America called new France, this island was included within its boundaries; however, if we except Champlain's description, there is scarcely any mention of it until 1663, when it was granted to a French captain by the name of Doublat, who held it in subordination to a fishing company established at the Island of Miscou. It was valued only for its fisheries, and to facilitate this industry several unimportant stations were established on its coast. St. John, as the island was called, began to emerge from general obscurity soon after the treaty of 1713, when Nova Scotia, being ceded to Britain, a number of the French settlers, who could not submit themselves to the British yoke sought refuge and freedom on this island. When Cape Breton was captured by the New England forces in 1745, St. John shared the same fate; but three years later, both were restored to France by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle. After the second reduction of Louisburg, in 1758, that of St. John again followed, when it became permanently annexed to the British crown.

2 — But the French inhabitants of this island, numbering at the time four or five thousand, were subjected to about the same treatment as their brethren in Nova Scotia. The details of the expulsion are not stated, but it appears that some of the inhabitants were sent to Canada, some to the southern colonies, and others to France; while it is admitted that many contrived to conceal themselves. So complete, however, was the desolation, that, in 1770, twelve years later, only 150 families were found on the island. The treaty of 1763 confirmed St. John to the British government of Great Britain. However, several years elapsed before measures were taken to promote its settlement.

3. — A strange scheme was that formed by Lord Egremont, by which the island was divided into twelve

covered by Cabot in 1497. When France claimed new France, this was the boundary; however, in 1763, there is scarcely a doubt that it was granted to a Frenchman, M. de La Potherie, who held it in company established at St. John, valued only for its fur trade. Several unimproved tracts on its coast. St. John, however, emerged from general obscurity in 1713, when Nova Scotia was numbered of the French. The French themselves fled to the British on this island. By the New England they met the same fate; but they fled to France by the second reduction of St. John again, and were finally annexed to the

inhabitants of this island, about five thousand, were expelled as their brethren. The expulsion of the inhabitants of the southern colonies, however, admitted that many

So complete, however, was the expulsion, that in 1770, twelve years after the British government took possession of the island. The British government, however, several years were taken to promote its

that formed by Lord Selkirk was divided into twelve

districts, ruled by as many barons, each of whom was to erect a castle on his own property, while that nobleman was to preside as lord paramount. This ridiculous plan was changed for another not much wiser. In 1767, a division was made into sixty-seven townships, of about 20,000 acres each, which, with some reservations for county towns, were granted to individuals who had claims upon the government. Their exertions to settle the country, however, were not very effective, and when they resolved, as the only means of rendering the property valuable, to sell it in small lots, their prices were too high; and as their rights to the land were conditional, they could not give to settlers that kind of tenure which is the most secure.

4.—In 1770, the proprietors of the island succeeded in procuring a government separate from that of Nova Scotia, although at the time there were but 150 families on the island. Mr. Patterson, first appointed to that office, brought back a number of the exiled Acadians—emigrants began to arrive in considerable numbers, and in 1773 a constitution was given and the first House of Assembly called. Gov. Patterson, however, and Gen. Fanning, who succeeded him in 1789, were involved in contests with the proprietors and settlers, who accused them of unlawful ambition to procure land for themselves.

5.—The name St. John, caused considerable inconvenience, as the principal towns in New Brunswick and Newfoundland had the same name. The name was therefore changed to Prince Edward Island, in honor of the Duke of Kent, who, while commander in America, had promoted some valuable improvements. In 1803, the Earl of Selkirk carried over to the island 800 Highlanders. This colony, under the wise management of the Earl, soon became very prosperous. Following this colony others came, and in 1840 the Highland Colony numbered about 5,000.

6.—During the administration of Gov. Desbaines, Prince Edward Island progressed rapidly. In 1813

this Governor was succeeded by Mr. Smyth, whose tyrannical conduct created considerable excitement. For several years previous to 1823, he prevented a session of the assembly, and when the people took measures to petition his removal, he caused them to be arrested. Mr. Stewart, the high Sheriff of the colony, having escaped to England via Nova Scotia, made known the affairs of the colony to the home government, when the Governor was removed and Lieut. Col. Ready appointed in his place. This new Governor was well received, and in conjunction with the assembly he effected useful legislation. In 1831 Ready was succeeded by Col. Young, who administered the affairs of the colony until 1836, in which year Sir John Harvey was named his successor. Sir John gave good satisfaction, but in 1837 he was removed to the government of New Brunswick, and his place supplied by Sir Charles A. Fitzroy. Thus continued the government of the island until it joined the Dominion of Canada.

DOMINION OF CANADA.

1867-1876.

1.—Having in the foregoing pages brought the history of the provinces that now constitute the Dominion of Canada down to within a few years of the confederation, we may now pass on to notice the history of this newly formed government, as well as the general progress of the industries under its fostering care. It is expected that the Dominion government will eventually extend its rule over all the British possessions in America lying north of the United States. It was founded in 1867, by the union of the Provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. Five years later, or in 1872, it embraced, in addition to these four provinces, the Provinces of Manitoba and British Columbia, and the Northwest Territory. In 1873 Prince Edward Island joined the Dominion, and Newfoundland was preparing to follow.

Mr. Smyth, whose considerable excitement. In 1823, he prevented a mob from taking the people to the Sheriff of the colony to the home was removed and his place. This new legislation. In 1831, he was re-elected in 1837 he was re-elected in Brunswick, and his Fitzroy. Thus continued until it joined the

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2.—The population of the Dominion, exclusive of other British possessions, at the present date, 1876, is not far short of 4,000,000. The area is about 3,500,000 square miles. There is no state church in the Dominion; none in all British America. Persons of the Roman Catholic faith number nearly one and a half millions. The remaining portion of the population are Presbyterians, Anglicans, Wesleyans and Methodists, Baptists, Lutherans, Congregationalists, etc. The Roman Catholics are in a majority in Quebec, and also in New Brunswick. In Ontario the Wesleyans are in the majority, while in Nova Scotia the Presbyterians have a plurality.

3.—The common school laws of the Dominion differ in the different provinces. The schools are supported partly by government and partly by self-imposed local taxation. The license system for teachers is under the management of the provincial Normal schools. The schools of Canada are making excellent progress, and everywhere in the Dominion the cause of education is making rapid advancement.

4.—The government of the Dominion of Canada is somewhat similar to that of the mother country. The Parliament consists of the Queen of Great Britain, and upper house styled the Senate, and a House of Commons. The Queen is represented by a Governor-General, who is appointed by the Crown, and exercises his authority with the aid and advice of a council appointed by himself. The Senate consists of not more than seventy-two members, who are chosen by the Governor-General, and hold the appointment for life. The House of Commons consists of about 180 members, elected by the people. Each of the provinces has its local or provincial government, consisting of an Assembly elected by the people, with a Lieutenant Governor at the head of the executive. The troops maintained in the Dominion by the government of Great Britain, have been reduced to 5,000 men. The militia which was organized in 1868 by the first Federal Parliament,

consists of all male British subjects between eighteen and sixty, divided into an active and reserve force. In 1870, the number of men on the rolls was 675,000. The naval forces of the Dominion in 1871 consisted of eight armed screw steamers, maintained on the great lakes and River St. Lawrence, and two coast steamers, available as gunboats.

5. — The Dominion, as we have said, originally included the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. The Legislature of Newfoundland declared in favor of joining the Dominion, but the people, in November, 1869, by a large majority, voted against it. In the same year the government of the Dominion purchased from the Hudson's Bay Company its vast territory. An insurrection of colonists and natives, who protested against having their land treated as a dependent territory, induced the government to organize in 1870, that part of the newly purchased territory which is situated between longitude 96° and 99° West, and the United States boundary line and latitude 50° 38' North, as an independent province under the name of Manitoba. The immense unorganized territory beyond the limits of Manitoba is called the Northwest Territory. British Columbia was received into the Union in March, 1871.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

1497-1870.

1. — This island was discovered by the Cabots in 1497. It is a large island in the form of an irregular triangle, about 1,000 miles in circumference. On the northwestern side, the straits of Belle Isle, about ten miles in width, separate it from Labrador; and on the southwest it is about fifty miles distant from Cape Breton, leaving a passage of that breadth into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The shores are generally bold and rugged, the surface mountainous, and the soil barren; yet, notwithstanding its scanty internal resources, Newfoundland has formed hitherto, in a commercial

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view, the most important of all the British possessions in America. The surrounding ocean is rich in treasure. Immense fields of ice, detached from the Arctic shores, and annually floated down to the neighborhood of the island, convey on their surface large herds of seal, from which the adventurous seamen draw valuable stores of oil. To the east the celebrated bank of Newfoundland, composed almost throughout of masses of solid rock, forms an extensive fishing ground of 600 miles in length and 200 in breadth. Here the cod fishery, the most extensive fishery in the world, has for several centuries been constantly increasing in extent, and yet not the slightest diminution of its fruitfulness has ever been observed.

2.—Almost immediately after its discovery, its shores became celebrated for their fisheries. The English claimed the right of jurisdiction over the island. But for a long time the number of British vessels employed in the vicinity of the island was less than those of the French or the Spanish. After several unsuccessful attempts to form a settlement, Mr. Guy, an intelligent merchant of Bristol succeeded in inducing a number of influential persons at court to engage in the undertaking, and, in 1610, having been appointed governor of the intended colony, he conveyed thither thirty-nine persons, who constructed a dwelling and storehouse, and formed the first permanent settlement on the island.

3.—A Catholic colony was established in Newfoundland in 1621, by Sir George Calvert, afterwards Lord Baltimore, the founder of Maryland. He resided on the island a considerable time. In 1660, the French began to form settlements, which they fortified, showing an evident wish to get possession of the whole island. In 1692, their works at Placentia were partially destroyed by the English, but, in 1696, they twice attacked St. John, and the second time, having gained possession of it, set it on fire. Soon after, they reduced all the English stations but two, but the

treaty of Ryswick, in 1697, terminated the contest, and restored every thing to the same state as before the commencement of hostilities.

4. — But the war of the secession, breaking out in 1702, the colony was, of course, again exposed to attack from the French. In 1705, the British colonists were successfully attacked, and, in 1708, St. John was surprised and completely destroyed, and the French became masters of every English station but one on the island. The successes of the English, however, on the continent enabled them, at the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, to redeem all their losses in this distant quarter, and Louis XIV was compelled to yield up all his possessions in Newfoundland, but he retained for his subjects the right of erecting huts and fishing stages on particular portions of the coast. In 1729, the colony was withdrawn from its nominal dependence on Nova Scotia, from which period, until 1827, the government of the island was administered by naval commanders appointed to cruise on the fishing station, but who returned to England during the winter. Since 1827, the government has been administered by resident Governors; and, in 1832, at the earnest solicitation of the inhabitants, a Representative Assembly was granted them.

5. — From this time the province has made continual progress, and will soon take its stand in the Dominion, on an equal footing with the other provinces.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

1. — This province of the Dominion of Canada, not before referred to at length, is bounded on the south by the United States, on the east by the Rocky Mountains, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. It includes the important islands of Queen Charlotte and Vancouver. The latter was formerly a separate British colony. British Columbia was united to the Dominion in 1871. There are portions of the province

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near the sea where the soil is good and the climate mild, though rainy. In the interior the surface is rugged and the climate severe. The coast line is characterized by a kind of canals, often walled in by mountains. Furs are extensively exported. There is much valuable timber, and the fisheries will eventually become very important. There is also much fine grazing land, and gold, coal and marble are found in promising quantities. The area of the province is estimated at 240,000 square miles. The capital is located at Victoria. In 1874, the population, exclusive of Indians was 14,043. The total population was, in the same year, estimated at 50,000. The finest harbor is at Esquimault. The province has an Anglican Bishop, who is located at New Westminster.

THE REPUBLIC OF MEXICO.

I. ABORIGINAL HISTORY.

Prior to the Spanish Conquest.

1.— Only by a careful analysis of the architectural and other remains of a people, can we approach to a knowledge of their history in the absence of written records or of hieroglyphs which may be deciphered; and, until recently, the buildings found by the Spaniards in Mexico at the time of the Conquest, have been misunderstood as indicating the grandeur of the palaces occupied by monarchs, while the people were apparently homeless and uncared for. The errors of the past will serve as beacons to warn us from similar dangers.

2.— When America was first discovered, the barbarous tribes that inhabited and possessed the country differed considerably in their degrees of civilization. Some tribes depended almost entirely upon their success in the chase, and others mainly resorted to fishing for a subsistence. Other tribes added to such pursuits a knowledge of agriculture more or less limited, and

yet others, now distinguished as Village Indians, had attained a high degree of proficiency as builders, uniting therewith some skill in the art of war, great aptitude and progress in astronomical researches, much success in the management of lands which they had brought under cultivation, and so much, or so little, development in social life, as is involved in the practice of living in common. Aboriginal Mexicans were of the last named and highest class, but there is no reason to conclude that they were in any respect differing from other tribes save in development.

3.—The tribes in different parts of the continent do not appear to have varied from each other more than the circumstances by which they were surrounded and influenced sufficiently explain, if we take into account long courses of years operating upon different members of one family in various climates, shut off from intercourse by the absence of literature until long after the main divergences were consummated. There is no positive evidence that the Mexicans were of the same race with the Indian tribes by which they were surrounded, but there is nothing that militates decidedly against that conclusion; and within historic times in Europe, the differentiation observable between German bands that engaged in war and those of the same tribes who were persistently occupied in agriculture and other industries, sufficiently illustrate how much greater changes than have been observed on this continent could readily arise among peoples of a like origin. The traditions of the Mexicans favor the idea of peculiar races, but where there is no written history, such traditions cannot be accepted as decisive; still such contributions toward knowledge are valuable and cannot fail to be interesting.

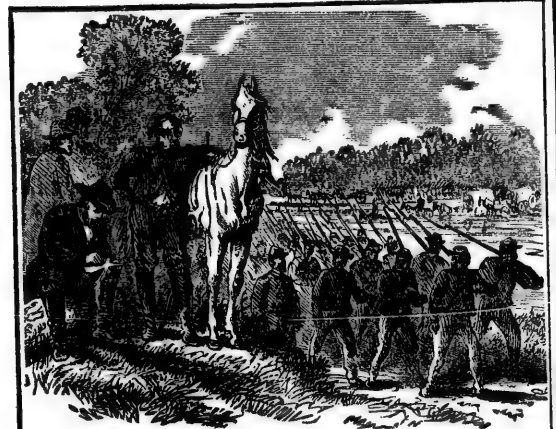
4.—Mexican hieroglyphics are said to show that the Toltecas, or Toltecs, were expelled from their own country, somewhere in the north, which they name as Tollan, in the year A. D. 472. They are supposed to have spent 104 years from that time as a migratory

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CROSSING THE RAPIDAN—GRANT'S TELEGRAM.



STONEWALL JACKSON AT BULL RUN.

people, before they settled down at a place about fifty miles east of the present City of Mexico, in the year 578, and continued there twenty years, moving a little way to the west at the end of that time to found a city, called after the home from which their ancestors had been driven, Tollan, or Tula.

5. — Probably an elective monarchy or chieftainship governed the wanderers in their movements from place to place; but it seems probable that the monarchy became centered in one family about or soon after their settlement, as it is claimed that monarchical institutions prevailed for almost four hundred years, from A. D. 667 until the people, having largely increased in numbers and wealth, were suddenly smitten by famine and pestilence, so that their cities were almost depopulated.

6. — If Cortez and his followers, on their arrival in Mexico in 1519, had been capable of understanding the value of hieroglyphics, and the necessity for merciful behavior toward the conquered people, it is possible that we should possess much information from which we are now shut out; but many documents were destroyed, and the people were so misused that the more learned fled the country, or were killed when Montezuma fell; hence, all that can be gathered concerning the Toltecs is largely conjectural. The symbols from which the ruin and dispersion of the nation is read implies that a spirit of evil appeared to them in the midst of one of their feasts, and suffocated them in his gigantic embrace, being followed by a child whose ulcerated head conveys the idea of pestilence supervening upon famine. Acting upon the advice of the evil one, whose warning had nearly destroyed their race, the remainder abandoned the country of their ancestors' adoption and their own birth, and were received with kindness among the other tribes or nations bordering upon Mexico, towards the end of the eleventh century.

7. — The Chichemecas occupied the territory from



which the Toltecs had departed, and they are said to have occupied one year and six months in their journey from the north, about one hundred years after the plague and the famine had driven off their predecessors. There still remained a fragment of the Toltecs, and these, intermarrying with the new comers, gave them an insight into the arts and sciences which had for so many centuries flourished in their cities. The information and aid thus imparted changed the Chichimecas from hunters and wanderers into an agricultural people. Monarchical rule or chieftainship had prevailed among them prior to the time of their fusion with the fragment of the Toltecs. Another tribe, the Acolhuans, followed the Chichimecas from the north, and the two peoples engaged in petty aggressive wars for many years, until the advent of the Aztecs prepared the way for more satisfactory progress.

8.—The Aztecs, as described by the hieroglyphics, wandered for fifty-six years, making brief stays at different spots on the banks of the Gila, or San Francisco River, where ruins are pointed out as having owed their origin to this people. Their home was a long way to the north of the Gulf of California, and their departure, in the year 1160, was due to a command from one of their gods. They made one of their settlements at Zumpango, in the Valley of Mexico, on the eastern shore of Lake Zumpango, but that was not the end of their journey.

9.—Their next settlement was made about two hundred and fifty miles from Chihuahua and about nine hundred and fifty miles northwest from the city of Mexico. The existence of considerable remains of a vast building known as the *Casa Grande*, which were noticed at the time of the conquest, marks this spot as one of the Aztec halting places, but the evidence is not conclusive. Culiacan was their next resting place south of Casa Grande on the banks of the Culiacan river, which enters the Gulf of California in the 24° of north latitude. During their stay here they

and they are said to have lived in their journey for several years after the death of their predecessor of the Toltecs, the new comers, gave them sciences which had not been in their cities. The Aztecs changed the Chichimecs into an agricultural chieftainship had time of their fusion. Another tribe, the Mexicas, came from the north, and their aggressive wars with the Aztecs prepared the way for the Spaniards.

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made about two leagues from Cuahuahua and about twenty miles west from the city. Considerable remains of the city of Teotihuacan, which, in the conquest, marks this place, but the evidence was their next resting place on the banks of the Gulf of California in their stay here they

built a wooden idol, intended to represent their God, under whose directions they were wandering, and four of their priests were appointed to carry this image in a chair of reeds upon their shoulders in all their travels after that time. The bearers of the burden were so called by being called servants of God.

10. — The Aztecs generally stayed at Culiacan, but one tribe of the six of which the main body was composed, departing thence with their deity arrived in the Valley of Mexico in the year 1216, where after a brief term of hospitable treatment they were enslaved by a prince who claimed the country in which they were staying and held them as slaves in default of the payment of tribute money.

11. — The tribe, when at length released from slavery, continued their course of travel, being guided in their journey by an eagle, until the year 1325, when having arrived near the borders of a lake, their friendly guide reposed upon an Indian fig tree and was found dead. This was accepted as an indication that they had come to the end of their pilgrimage, and, having erected an altar for their religious rites, they proceeded to build a city which was called Mexico, from the God of war, Mexitli; but the name originally given to the city was Tenochtitlan.

12. — From this time there is something more to be relied upon than doubtful traditions and still more doubtful interpretations of hieroglyphics, as the buildings of the Mexicans tell the story of their lives, and illustrate their institutions for the one hundred and ninety-four years that intervened before the arrival of Hernando Cortez. Their wealth increased and they extended their dominion by wars, marriages and alliances of various kinds, over the descendants of the tribes with which their ancestors had commenced the long journey, and over various other tribes.

13. — Elective chieftains ruled the tribe until long after the settlement commenced at Mexico, but with the increase of wealth came also the desire for a more

settled form of government, and the vigor which is seldom found save in an individual will, consequently the responsibility devolved upon a king, from whom Montezuma came ninth in succession, being chosen by the people from the family which had come to be recognized as royal. Necessarily all the details of these events are liable to misinterpretation from the hieroglyphics, but the main facts are vouched for by information from other sources which were available when Spanish writers turned their attention to this subject in the brightest portion of Spanish history from the days of Columbus to the death of Cervantes.

14. — The Toltecas were still distinguished among the people by whom they were surrounded, being more learned and skillful, so that when men were found who were cunning workmen in the precious metals, or who were specially versed in astronomy, they were known as Toltecas. Their knowledge of the law upon which eclipses could be calculated was certainly remarkable, and it is said that they had originated the system of adding one day in four years to the civil year in order to compensate the difference between the civil and the solar year, about a century before the birth of Christ. The evidence upon which this statement is hazarded is very incomplete, but there is no essential improbability in the assertion.

15. — Painting was, with the Mexicans, history as well as art, and it was moreover a great factor in the enforcement of religious instruction and moral as well as social, and in this accomplishment the Toltecas were the teachers of the people. When the Spaniards under Cortez became masters of Mexico, they looked upon the paintings which adorned the temples and public buildings as parts of a gross system of idolatry, and therefore committed to the flames vast contributions to history, astronomical lore, legislative enactments and mythological ideas which might have enabled shrewd thinkers in our own day, to have discovered by subtle analysis, whence came the nations that origi-

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nally overspread this continent. Their calendar with the positions of the stars, the moon's changes and the recurrence of eclipses, were among the items embodied in the pictures upon which the Spaniards vented their ignorant, pious rage.

16. — Happily the records were not all destroyed, but what remains renders it the more to be regretted that the pictured history is incomplete. One collection of paintings shows as nearly as pictured writings can render such matters clear, the history of Mexico; subject always to the chance of misconception on the part of the translator. Another set describes the tribute moneys paid by conquered nations and cities. The domestic, military and political institutions of Mexico appear in another set, and every map was a picture setting forth the positions of cities, towns, rivers, boundaries, and outlines of coasts. Cortez saw paintings on skins, on the inner surface of the bark of trees, suitably prepared, on paper made of aloe leaves, by processes rudely resembling the earlier modern methods, and on cloth made from the fibre of aloes and palms. In the schools and in the homes of the Mexicans, their children were taught in numberless songs, the meaning of every picture, or of such pictures as were thought essential, so that every generation became versed in the learning of the nation.

17. — The rage of the Spaniards was more violently excited by statues than by paintings, and precisely in that direction the genius of the Toltecas and Mexicans found its highest point. Sculpture, Mosaic work and the castings of metals had been carried to great perfection, but all such evidences of ingenuity and grace called for the energy of destruction in which the conquerors excelled. It is asserted that when the first church was built in Mexico, many thousands of these statues were destroyed to make the foundation, and the inexhaustible zeal of the Monks, stimulating the still more ignorant hate of the soldiery, left few relics worthy of notice.

18. — Charles V, Emperor of Spain and Germany, to whom numerous presents in gold and silver work were sent by Hernando Cortez, as indications of the wealth of the country and of the skill of the conquered people, was transported with astonishment, and the jewelers, to whom these cunning productions were exhibited, declared that they were inimitable in Europe. The Mexicans were alike skillful in casting and in chasing the precious metals, and this branch of art was ascribed specially to the favor of their Gods. Under the rule of the conquerors there remained but few evidences of taste on the part of the people, and wherever escape seemed possible, the Mexicans and Toltecas escaped from the intolerable rule of Spain.

19. — It might be supposed that the richness of the material employed was one reason why in a coarse and rude age the art of the Mexicans and Toltecas was highly praised, but their skill in feather work was just as marked and successful, as their fine mosaics had all the effect of paintings, so exquisitely was every feather placed in regard to color and shade. The Spaniards were astonished when they found Indians able to excel their painters in works of art with such materials as feathers only. The extent of Mexican and Toltecac acquirements in science found no appreciation among the soldiery, but art appeals more immediately to the senses.

20. — The Mexicans or Aztecs traced their course towards the city which they founded by the buildings which they raised and left when they passed on, and in the city itself massive buildings were found consisting of one, two and three stories built on terraces, and having flat roofs which served as terraces from which the next stories rose in succession. Those buildings, supposed at one time to have been the palaces of great people and rulers, are now found to have been the common dwellings inhabited by the mass of the community of every rank. Usually these dwellings could be traversed from one compartment to another par-

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tially within and wholly by means of trap doors in the terrace roofs. Sometimes there were as many as five thousand people in one such dwelling erected on three sides of a quadrangular court raised from the surface of the country by a system of terraces. The lower parts of the buildings had no openings save windows high from the court yard; ladders reached from without to the terrace roof, and in the event of an attack, those ladders withdrawn gave almost complete security to the defenders of such a dwelling. The materials used were of a kind that defied fire, and the glistening whiteness of the walls seen from a distance, made the Spaniards believe that the city was built of frosted silver. The cleanliness of the Mexicans was as marked as the firmness and majesty of their architecture.

21. — Extensive aqueducts, conveying water a distance of two miles, attest the high degree of civilization attained by the Mexicans. These works were constructed of stone and cement. The population of Mexico is almost entirely matter for conjecture, and the conquerors used such expressions as would justify the assumption that there were many hundred thousands of inhabitants in the kingdom, but the lowest and most moderate computation consistent with ascertained facts, places the number at one hundred thousand. The civilization and progress in art culture as well as in science, which we find evidenced in the several cities, cannot be imagined as parts of the development of a scanty population and village life.

22. — The King exercised what in modern phraseology might be termed a limited monarchy. The right to elect had, during nearly four centuries, been narrowed to six of the most powerful chiefs, including those of Tezcuco and Tacuba, with whom the privilege had become hereditary, and all the more important acts of Montezuma were submitted for confirmation to a council of the principal chiefs. Practically, the idea of chieftainship remained almost entire, and in their government as well as in their homes, the nation was

communal and democratic. There were but few changes in their form of government so far as can be ascertained from the time of the foundation of Mexico until the death of Montezuma.

23.—We cannot too distinctly keep before our eyes the tribal institutions of chieftainship when considering the constitution of the Mexican government. The chiefs or nobility held a kind of feudal state, each being possessed of territories ample for all purposes, taken from other tribes, or held under certain conditions as to improvement, and certain titles indicated the relation of the chief in every case to the community with which he was immediately identified. The idea of the family permeated all the tribes and the nation. Slaves might be taken from other nations and held in bondage, but so far as the Mexicans themselves were concerned, their labors were almost entirely voluntary. European writers, knowing nothing of society except as they found it in their own country, where oppressed peoples were just emerging from the feudal condition, to become subjects of the several monarchies, with little improvement, unless to change masters is a relief, have applied the limitations of their own condition to Mexican society, and have arrived at most erroneous conclusions in consequence. Hence, we are told that the people occupied a most humiliating position, and the condition of those who were held in bondage, having been taken prisoners in the warlike expeditions of the time, has been stated as that of the lower rank of the Mexicans themselves. By studying the condition of the Indian tribes of today, in those positions in which they have attained the best development, it will be seen that such conditions of servitude are not consistent with the maintenance of manly vigor upon which the actual existence of the nation continually depended in the contests with surrounding tribes. Instances of personal tyranny, perhaps, may have been noticed, but circumstances were not of such a character as would permit of their growing

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into a system of oppression. Social obligations were rigorously observed, and the language displays much refinement in this respect, but in the main, where war continued to be the basis of society, the fighting men could not be socially degraded below the men whom they followed successfully in their forays or defensive operations.

24.—Where election, within certain limits, determined what individual should reign, and what acts should have authority, the rule of the monarch was necessarily unostentatious as a rule; but the Spaniards claim that Montezuma had converted his administration into a pure despotism, reducing all his subjects to a state of slavery, a statement impossible of realization among people self defended and not overridden by standing armies. The writings of the Spanish monk, Clavigero, illustrate the manner in which such ideas have arisen.

25.—The form of the Mexican communal residence or pueblo has already been given, and the size of some of the pueblos was such as that even six thousand people could be lodged therein. This building, probably constructed upon a detailed plan, determined upon at first, would be erected only as circumstances required. The mound intended to hold a pueblo, that would lodge six thousand ultimately, would be commenced when only a tithe of that number required accommodation, and each succeeding increase would build on a section in accordance with the system observed, every compartment being the property of the builders and their successors. Their fishing, hunting, and warlike expeditions were also prosecuted in common, and the common stock of provision for each compartment was cooked at common fires in the court yard, sufficient in number to meet the regulated demands of each family or circle. The sovereign and his council of chiefs occupied parts of such common dwellings as therein only was safety against the assaults of predatory wandering tribes and hostile neighbors.

26. — Spanish writers assume that the vast pueblos instead of being a common residence for all classes, were palaces of kings and nobles, in which all the people that assembled in their respective homes were courtiers, dependents and slaves, doing daily homage to their masters. It did not occur to them to inquire how so many systematic idlers could be fed, or they must have seen that a community so cursed would necessarily die of inanition, if their weakness did not tempt incursions and conquest. Clavigero speaks of hundreds of feudatory lords in the antechambers of the king; having been led by the cursory observations of the soldiers and monks, who first saw the facts from the outside world, to describe in detail just such conditions of life as have been observed among the Creek Indians, Iroquois and other savages; the practice of living in common. This communal existence, which was consistent with habits of industry and economy, was misunderstood to represent a whole nation of courtiers and attendants living in an inexplicable manner, without settled industries, waiting upon the smile of the monarch. The Hode-no-sote or long house of the Iroquois, resembled the pueblos of the Mexicans, in being the common home of numerous related groups, but each compartment had a fireplace; an arrangement probably suggested by climatic differences. The Creeks built their houses in clusters, the inhabitants of each cluster living and eating in common. Such facts could be multiplied to an immense extent, but enough has been said to illustrate the common practice.

27. — The information supplied by such writers as Clavigero, as to the domestic customs of the Mexicans, must be discarded as readers become more conversant with actual facts; but it may be as well to observe that he asserts that the women of the court were as numerous as the men, a statement by no means improbable, although the safety of such an immense seraglio as he imagines and reports, guarded only

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28.—The homely dresses worn by the nobility and the courtiers when in the palace can be very readily understood, when we see that the pueblo was the so called palace, in which every man or woman was at home, and beyond the necessity for pompous display. The forms and ceremonies used in addressing Montezuma are the more suspicious, because they resemble the customs that prevailed among European sovereigns at that time. The kings, to whom the Spaniards paid court, dined almost in public, as did those of France and England at that era, and when it had been found that Montezuma was in the habit of dining in his reception room, that circumstance was quoted as evidence of a somewhat similar regal condition in Mexico.

29.—The details given as to Montezuma's vessels of gold and silver, and choice earthenware of Chohila, are only in part apocryphal; and the description of the extent of Montezuma's feast, the number of dishes and attendants that waited the pleasure of the monarch, covering the floor of a great hall, is only another instance of life misunderstood, by an observer not skilled in comprehending an entirely new phenomenon. Every dish was accompanied by a chafing dish, that it might not grow cold, a very natural precaution when the common meal had to be conveyed, every day, from the fire in the open court to the common room. The Spaniards under Cortez saw every event with eyes and minds preoccupied by their own customs, hence the misapprehension which is unravelled, when the customs of Indian tribes are used as the key to open the secret of Mexican social existence.

30.—Montezuma is said to have indicated always the dishes chosen by him, before the nobles proceeded to consume the remainder; and it is noted as a remarkable circumstance, that he was waited upon by persons of both sexes during his repasts, as also that

dwarves, jesters, and deformed persons, were retained to amuse him with their remarks, when the music temporarily lulled in the intervals of his daily meal. The statement as to dwarves and jesters is only open to suspicion because precisely similar customs had been in force all over Europe for some centuries when the story was first told; still there is no element of improbability in the narration.

31. — Clavigero probably believed all that he stated as to the Mexicans, but he wrote a long time after the events and customs described by him had passed away, and all his information came through doubtful channels; hence the story that Montezuma habitually traveled in a palanquin, supported on the shoulders of the nobility, that carpets were carried from place to place, in order that his royal feet might never touch the earth, and that his subjects stood still, with their eyes closed, while his canopied palanquin passed by, may be accepted as an exaggerated version of something actually seen. The extravagance or the despotism of one monarch may have found extraordinary expression in a ridiculous state; but such exhibitions could hardly have crystallized into custom, in the course of less than four centuries, of an elective Monarchy, or Chieftanship, among a warlike people, hardy enough to have placed the yoke of servitude, or tribute, upon the tribes by which they were surrounded.

32. — There are evidences that in their warlike boasting the Mexicans did not widely differ from other Indian tribes, and it is asserted that they were cannibals, as the Fijians are to-day, to the extent of eating the flesh of prisoners taken in war. Their religious worship, although refined in some particulars, required terrible sacrifices of human life, and it was perhaps in order to satisfy that demand that wars continued to be waged against other tribes; but the history of the people comes to us through hands so little qualified to analyze contemporary statements that it is matter for

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most legitimate doubt. The statement that all the prisoners taken in battle were sacrificed is immediately contradicted by the fact that some were retained in a condition of servitude.

33.— The Aztecs are credited with having commenced the practice of offering human sacrifices to the Gods, as the Toltecas and Chichimecas are said to have been clear of that horrible practice, but at this distance of time, and with such mediums for the conveyance of information it is not wise to pronounce dogmatically. The number of victims offered as sacrifices cannot fail to have been overstated by even the most moderate of the writers usually quoted, but we can do nothing better than repeat their estimates with an expression of prudent doubt. Clavigero says not less than 20,000; Zumaraga, the first Bishop of Mexico, says that more than that number were annually sacrificed in the city of Mexico alone; Acosta says that there were two days on which 5,000 and 20,000 were respectively sacrificed; and Gomara quotes other writers to show that the aggregate exceeded 50,000 annually. Such diversities of statement tend to show that there were no reliable data upon which to base the several stories.

34.— The Temple of the Sun which is said to have been consecrated by the immediate predecessor of Montezuma is supposed to have attracted 8,000,000 of people to witness the sacrifice of 80,000 victims. It is very evident that no such number of persons could have been attracted, lodged and fed during the ceremonial, and it is almost inevitable that the numbers were grossly exaggerated in both respects. Beyond all doubt the people were bowed down beneath a system more or less idolatrous, administered by an order of priests whose authority was secured by the ability of the learned men to overawe the ruder multitude by occasional displays of their power; but sacrifices such as have been named would have depleted the nation.

II. SPANISH RECORD IN MEXICO.

1510-1808.

1.—Hernando Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico, was a soldier of fortune under Velasquez, who conquered Cuba in 1511, and after that event had been consummated, the commander dispatched his subaltern with an expedition to Mexico in the month of February, 1519. Cortez had only a small force, but in order to compel his men to fight desperately, he is said to have destroyed his ships immediately upon landing at Vera Cruz. By combining with the native tribes that were inimical to Mexico the conquest was effected and the sovereignty was vested in the Spanish King. The proceedings of Cortez were so unsatisfactory to Velasquez that another officer was sent to supersede him with a force more considerable than his own; but Cortez fought and vanquished Narvaez with his thousand men and persuaded most of the soldiers to enlist under his flag. Cortez was nominated Governor and Captain General by the court of Spain in 1522, and continued with some changes, and with one break caused by a visit to Europe in 1528, to administer the affairs of the colony until the year 1540.

2.—The Spaniards were moved by two desires, to win territory for the King, and to win souls from idolatry; but unfortunately their missionary zeal had not the effect of making their conduct kindly toward the people whom they conquered. The Catholic faith introduced from Spain was rigidly upheld, and it is claimed that 4,000,000 of the natives were induced or compelled to give in their adhesion to Christianity as thus represented within a few years; but the change was only nominal, and the people degenerated. Coronado mentions that when he had successfully prosecuted an expedition against a native city, the conquered people gathered up such of their possessions as could be transported, and fled from the dominion of Spain. With a wide range of country before them,

the Indians preferred the wilds with liberty rather than cities and oppression.

3. — Half responsible Governors and their subordinates constituted what was known as colonial government in Mexico. The conquerors held the natives as bondmen, and made life hateful by their exactions. The influence of Bartolomé de las Casas alone tended to soften the condition of the Mexicans but his career as Bishop of Chiapa ended in 1551. In spite of his intervention they were still held as serfs and compelled to work in the fields, or in the mines, under taskmasters nominated by the governors. The denunciation of Spanish cruelty made by Las Casas upon his return to his native country produced an excellent effect upon the mind of the Emperor, Chas. V, who was also King of Spain.

4. — Vassalage slowly won its way over serfdom until the beginning of the 18th century, when the cheapness of native labor induced the abandonment of the last relics of slavery but the people were tyrannized over in a cruel and destructive manner by laws in which they were not consulted, and by magistrates who could do almost as they pleased. Intermarriage with the white population was strictly prohibited, firearms could not be owned by the pure Mexican race, nor could they enter into any contract for an amount exceeding \$50.

5. — The population of Mexico, which had been noted for industry and skill, degenerated under Spanish rule, as an almost inevitable consequence of the cruel system persevered in, until they were seldom seen in the cities, except as mendicants, or little better; and on the lands over which they were at one time unquestioned masters, they were barely able to procure subsistence by reason of the want of irrigation and the general badness of the location to which they were limited.

6. — Spain is not successful in the management of its colonies, and the descendants of the conquerors

were as little benefited by the system in operation as those who owed their birth to the native stock. Court favor continued as long as Spain held sway in Mexico, to determine the appointments of Viceroys and other officials, who were selected in Europe, and it provoked painful comment long before the revolution, that the American born Spaniard was never preferred to any office that could be filled by a man sent direct from Spain. The rulers thus sent had no interest in common with the native population, nor could they hope for a continuance of favor for their families, should they remain in Mexico. A system of caste was thus superimposed upon the other evil conditions observable in Mexican society.

7.—The representative of Spain in Mexico customarily returned to Spain at the termination of his career in office, a very wealthy person, although his salary rarely exceeded \$60,000, and the style in which he was expected to live, maintaining the retinue of a king, could not be supported upon that amount of money. Notwithstanding that drawback, the office was at all times in request, and only great favorites could procure the nomination as Viceroy. The deficit in actual salary was made up by organized malfeasance in office. Titles and distinctions much sought for among colonists could only be procured as a rule through the recommendation of the governor, and he must be paid for all such marks of favor. Commercial privileges were also paid for in a manner somewhat similar, and the monopolies granted to individuals and companies, to deal in some particular articles of foreign manufacture, were made conducive to the wealth of the Viceroy as well as to the enrichment of the treasury of Spain. Many offices were held without salary in consequence of the facilities thus acquired for levying exactions upon the public.

8.—The law had forbidden intermarriages between the Indian and white populations, but the Creoles were very largely tintured with Indian blood, and

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that race found just as little success attending their efforts to procure justice as the Indians themselves. Changes were made sometimes in good faith by the Court of Spain, but it was the misfortune of that government, that it had no means of ascertaining the actual condition of the colonies, and that it would not confer upon the people self government. The European Spaniard enjoyed a distinction of caste that secured him attention and preference, where the Mexican of pure white descent, could scarcely obtain a hearing, and the name Creole was one of the lowest expressions of contempt, on the part of the ruling caste.

9.—The Spanish government is supposed to have given countenance to such distinctions, on the principle that is conveyed in the maxim "Divide and Conquer." Those who were upheld by European authority were calculated upon as the chief defense of Spain in the colonies, and there was a continuous and persistent effort to maintain the dominion of ignorance over the bulk of the population. The sum total of all the teaching permitted went to show that Spain was the greatest monarchy on earth, and that Mexico was well placed in becoming her dependency. Schools were seldom permitted as learning was dangerous to the ruling caste, and was supposed to be unsuited to colonial life. The City of Mexico was specially favored in being permitted to use a printing press, a privilege not extended to other cities and colonies, but the operation of the boon was the subject of very severe restrictions.

10.—Spain, always jealous of her naval supremacy and commercial advantages, rigidly insisted upon the retention of all trade with her colonies. The produce that sought a market in Europe must be shipped in Spanish vessels to Spanish ports, and the supplies in exchange must come through the same channels. Their ports were closed against foreigners as rigidly as those of China and Japan before this century. No

foreign ship could enter the port or trade with the people, and the native born Spanish-American was not allowed to own or charter a ship. Such articles as could be manufactured in Spain, however badly, were not to be manufactured in the colonies, and even the cultivation of vines and olives in Mexico was forbidden, because Spain sought a monopoly in that direction. The produce that was not prohibited was still often placed under limitations, often determined by the tonnage of Spanish vessels available for exportation, and the enterprise of Spanish mariners. Under such distortion of paternal government the people were ground down into the bitterest dregs of poverty, even while mines of gold and silver were in full operation.

11. — France and England secured some commercial privileges at intervals during the eighteenth century, which partially opened the ports of the Spanish colonies. France opened the way during the war of the Spanish succession, and in the year 1713, under a treaty signed at Utrecht, Great Britain obtained the privilege of sending one ship of 500 tons burthen every year to the fair of Porto Bello. How narrow had been the restriction can best be seen in the small concession thus grudgingly wrung out. The colonies were next allowed to trade with each other, but it was not until 1774 that such a small measure of liberty was perfected upon infinitesimal beginnings. In the year 1778, another instalment of freedom was permitted to take effect. Seville had been the only port of Spain in which Mexican produce could be sold, or from which supplies for the colonies could be obtained; the Sevillian monopoly was broken, so that the colonists could consign their shipments to either of seven different ports, but the market was still circumscribed strictly, as no foreigners could enter into competition with Spain, and the seas of South America were as strongly held against any form of commercial enterprise as the waning power of Spain would permit.

12. — Charles IV became King of Spain in 1788,

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and Godoy, the faithless Prime Minister, favored by the Queen, rendered the Spanish rule in Mexico more odious than ever before. Every office was for sale at a price named in money or in some disgraceful employment, and neither talent nor character were recommendations, unless the lowest influences were resorted to for the purpose of securing appointments or promotion. The judges were men without principle or capacity as a rule, and if a man who possessed ability was appointed, so much the worse for the people against whom his talents were used. Every fresh arrival was more hungry and necessitous than the person whom he displaced, and the community suffered an always increasing drain upon its narrowing resources.

13. — When Napoleon removed the Spanish dynasty from the throne of Spain, and substituted his brother Joseph, the rottenness of the superseded court affronted every nostril, and although the condition of Mexico did not enter into the calculations of the French Emperor, it naturally suggests itself here as one of the chief considerations why a change of any kind must have been a source of hope. The aspects of society there visible indicated a state of suffering that must revolt, unless relief could be found in some other and easier form. The Creole class, most nearly related to Spain of all the native born population, stood apart from the Spanish born caste of office holders, indignant because of the wrongs which they had been called upon to endure. There was no press and but few schools, or the reign of ignorance and submission could not have endured so long. Speculation and other frauds pervaded every department of the government; commerce, in fetters, could give no support to the people; manufactures had long been interdicted; and beneath all these disturbing causes there reposed, with an always increasing share of supineness, first, an aboriginal population, degraded below the average Indian, and above him the several varieties of half-bred population, ignorant enough to be used by the first able manipulator that could arouse their passions.

III. THROWING OFF THE YOKE.

1808-1820.

1. — We have seen what was the condition of Mexico immediately before the abdication of Charles IV of Spain, and the deposition of his son Ferdinand offered an opportunity for casting off the European Yoke; and we will now briefly examine the means whereby the disruption became possible.

2. — The favorite Godoy and the guilty Queen of Spain had become so much abhorred by the people, and the old King now almost sixty years of age was so much an object of contempt, that in the face of recent developments in France, even Spain might have been tempted to rise in rebellion; more especially when it appeared that the son, Prince Ferdinand, was willing to direct the movement. Probably those domestic troubles were being skillfully manipulated, by the secret agents of the French court; certainly no other combination of circumstances could have so completely assisted Napoleon in his designs upon that Kingdom. The King, disturbed by strife within the palace, was ill prepared to cope with threatened revolution outside, and on the 19th of March, 1808, he abdicated the throne in Ferdinand's favor, who was at once proclaimed King, as Ferdinand VII.

3. — Ferdinand only reigned about six weeks, when he was compelled to resign by Napoleon. The French Emperor had long been an interested observer of Spanish affairs, and as soon as the abdication had been made public, his troops crossed the frontiers as in the interests of order, and Murat, with an army, entered the capitol. The old King relieved from the former pressure and probably influenced by Godoy now revoked his abdication expecting that Napoleon would assist him to remount the throne. The Imperial Mediator who had already satisfied himself as to the unfitness of either of the family to govern a Kingdom, and who had secured the services of Godoy in his interest, ar-

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ranged for the whole of the Spanish royal family to meet him at Bayonne; where during an interview on the 28th of April, 1808, he induced or compelled both father and son to renounce the crown; and when that act had been completed on the first day of May, the parties to the compact were consigned for safe custody to the Chateau of Valencay, where they remained until March, 1814. Joseph Bonaparte was proclaimed King in the stead of either Ferdinand or Charles, and at once assumed his duties.

4.—Spain would have risen against Charles with much pleasure, and was not very sorry to be quit of Ferdinand; but the manner in which the change had been effected, and the substitution of the Corsican, Joseph Bonaparte, aided by French bayonets, proved too much for Spanish pride. The people by their leaders established a Central Junta, and immediately thereafter a regency, which was set up as the only legitimate government of the Kingdom during the imprisonment of the Monarch. The Regency really administered a Democratic form of government in the name of Ferdinand, and the idea took hold upon the bulk of the people.

5.—The knowledge that such events had transpired in Europe was in itself a revolution for Mexico, as, until that moment there had been no doubt in the popular mind, that the Spanish monarchy would endure to the end of time. The Spanish Monarch and not Spain had always claimed the fealty of Mexico, and in that fact was found a reason why neither Joseph on the one hand nor the Regency Junta on the other could be accepted as the sovereign, so that there was an admirable opening for the people to assume the management of their own affairs, if only their class differences could be accommodated.

6.—The Kingdom of Spain, now held by foreign troops, could do nothing worthy of mention in the way of vindicating its claim to Mexico, and instead of pursuing a just and liberal policy toward the colonists, the

Junta and the Regency drew the reins of commercial restriction more tightly than ever before, so that it behooved the people to consider whether some means of self-help could not be found.

7.—The immediate result of the substitution of Joseph for Ferdinand on the throne of Spain was, that in Mexico the Spanish Viceroy issued an address to the people announcing his determination to stand firmly by the old dynasty, and soliciting their concurrence and support. The Creoles were pleased immensely by this appeal to their patriotism, and the response to the address was of such a character that a chamber of deputies from the several provinces was convened to take measures for carrying on the government in the name of the King.

8.—The European Spaniards would probably have given their support to the Viceroy, if he had made his appeal to them only, but the idea of admitting the Creoles, or American born Spaniards, to a share in the government, outraged their sense of dignity, and their immemorial privileges, as well as the rights of the Crown. As soon as the party had determined on resistance, a plan of operations was agreed upon. The *Audiencia*, or High Court of the colony was made the basis of action, and the Viceroy, seized under the orders of that tribunal, and his most dangerous adherents, were held prisoners for a considerable time. When the first step had thus been taken, the Spaniards armed themselves to resist the Creoles if necessary, and every man was enrolled in the patriotic bands that stood ready for action. The Creoles soon roused themselves to action, and the angry feelings long before active against the privileged class soon found occasion for an outbreak, now that the question was not such as to affect their loyalty to the imprisoned king.

9.—Hidalgo, the priest in the town of Dolores, commenced the revolt against the *Audiencia* party in the name of religion, and in the hope that reforma-

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tion of grievances would be secured, on the 16th of September, 1810. There were private as well as public grievances to be redressed, and the policy of the dominant clique had long been very oppressive. The Creoles were quite in sympathy with this movement, and ten of them were acting with their priest in the first outbreak, which resulted in seven of the European party being imprisoned and their properties divided among the followers of Hidalgo. The Viceroy had now been a prisoner for just two years under the illegal orders of the Audiencia.

10.—Insurrection became now the order of the day, and Hidalgo was so strongly reinforced within three days from his first exploit, that he took San Felipe and San Miguel, two large towns, confiscating the property of the Audiencia party in each and every instance. This line of policy increased his followers very speedily, as the pay of the rebel force was liberal and rapid, and in a very little time he was able to undertake much larger expeditions. His greatest capture had been San Felipe, with a population of 16,000, but within thirteen days from the first rising, his force had become 20,000, the major part poorly armed Indians, but he attacked and carried Guanaxuato, overpowering the garrison, putting all the Spaniards to death, giving up their property as before among his followers, and seizing \$5,000,000 of public funds. This city contained 80,000 inhabitants, and the fame of his rising still further recruited his numbers.

11.—Valladolid submitted without resistance on the 17th of October, and Hidalgo commanding a force of 50,000 men was now recruited by well armed bodies of militia as well as by accessions of Indians. Father Morelos, a priest with an absolute talent for revolution, joined him at this point, and Toluca was the next position to be taken, at a distance of only twenty-five miles from Mexico. Hidalgo was opposed by the new Viceroy, Venegas, with 7,000 men, but

the first engagement between a detachment from that body and the insurgents, resulted in a defeat for the constituted authorities, on the 30th of October, at Las Cruces; and if the Creole party had pushed forward immediately, there can be but little doubt that Mexico would have fallen into their hands. Hidalgo suddenly retreated when the game was already within reach, and from that moment his opportunity seemed to have passed away. Troops well disciplined can be held back with comparative safety, but an insurrection must never pause in its career until success has crowned the effort.

12.—Gen. Calleja, commanding the forces of the Audiencia, met and routed Hidalgo on the 7th of November, on the plains of Acapulco, and it is said that 10,000 Indians fell in that engagement. Most of the force under Calleja consisted of Creoles. At Guanajuato the victor avenged the deaths of the Europeans, by terrible excesses against the inhabitants remaining in the city, whose throats were cut to save the expense of shooting them.

13.—Both sides committed horrible crimes against humanity in the name of patriotism. Hidalgo beheaded eighty Europeans at Valladolid, and then proceeding to Guadalajara, he arrested and imprisoned every European. Their days in captivity were brief, as Hidalgo, believing, or professing to believe that they had conspired against the insurgents, removed them from their jail and caused nearly eight hundred persons to be murdered in the mountain recesses without any form of trial, and with every precaution to surround the crime with the veil of secrecy. The atrocity thus committed sealed the fate of the insurrection, as the better class of Creoles sickened at the idea of such abhorrent practices, at once impolitic and frightful.

14.—The two armies met again at the Bridge of Calderon on the 17th of January, 1811, near Guadalajara, and the defeat of the insurgents was decided.

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Hidalgo, with a force reduced to about 4,000 men, re- treated to Saltillo, and, from that position, the leader with several officers proceeded toward the American frontier, intending to purchase arms and munitions of war from the United States, if possible, as the treas- ure captured at Guanajuato remained yet unexpended. While on the journey, the leader and his associates were taken prisoners in consequence of information given by a former comrade. The Priest, having been tried at Chihuahua, was sentenced to be shot, but was first shorn of the privileges of his order, and those of his followers who were captured at the same time were also shot.

15.—Morelos, who joined the insurgent forces upon the arrival of Hidalgo at Valladolid, had, since then, gone to the southwestern coast to induce the Creoles to rise, being accompanied by only a few armed men, and soon after the death of the former leader, his movements fastened upon him the attention of all Mexico. His conduct never tarnished the cause with which he had become identified, and his successes were sufficient evidence of his fitness as a leader. Many slaves joined him immediately upon his arrival at his destination, but he was unable to arm them. When his company approached Acapulco, on the Pa- cific coast, there were hardly one hundred armed men in the body of one thousand insurgents, a capture of twenty muskets having been esteemed a special mercy. The Commandant of the district was at the head of a large body of well appointed troops, and the defeat of Morelos was a foregone conclusion; but the Priest or- ganized a night attack, routed the opposing force, cap- tured 800 muskets, five cannon, a quantity of ammu- nition, and the military chest containing a large sum of money, besides 700 prisoners, who were treated with marked consideration. Thus was commenced a career which, for two years, never failed of substantial success.

16.—Rayon, a young lawyer, who had served un-

der Hidalgo as his secretary, assumed the control of the troops left by his former leader at Saltillo, and conducted a retreat to Zacatecas, but his authority was not recognized generally, and, in the face of considerable organizations, the Viceroy, acting with the European party, was master of all the principal cities. Rayon, shrewdly perceiving that, for want of concerted action, there would be no chance of success for the Native party, called a junta which, it was hoped, would effectually represent all classes that were opposed to the continuance of the tyranny of the Audiencia.

17.—While Rayon was laying out his plans for more regular procedure, Morelos won a succession of brilliant victories, defeating, in every instance, the troops sent against him by Venegas during 1811, and, in February, 1812, his advanced posts were within seven leagues of Mexico. Calleja, who won two victories with much smaller bodies of men against Hidalgo, was summoned by Venegas to undertake the defense of the capital, but his impetuous onset upon Morelos at Cuantla was terribly repulsed, 500 of his men being slain.

18.—The project to which Rayon gave his attention resulted in the election of five members, composing a central government, which was established at Zitacuaro, in the Province of Valladolid. Great hopes were entertained by the Creoles that the action of this body would bring peace to the country; but in spite of the sound wisdom exhibited by the popular Junta, little good resulted. The authority of the King of Spain was expressly recognized in every edict, and an address to the Creoles, in the form of a manifesto to the Viceroy, produced an excellent effect upon the public, although Venegas caused his copy to be burned in the plaza at Mexico by the common executioner.

19.—The success of Morelos assisted materially in deepening the impression made by the Junta, more especially when a second expedition under Calleja

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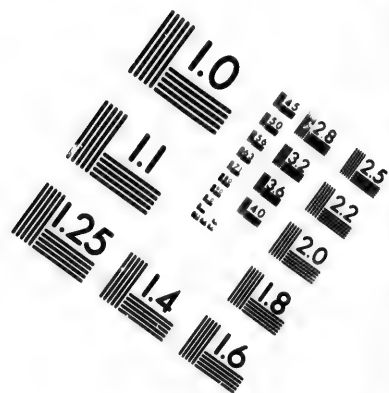
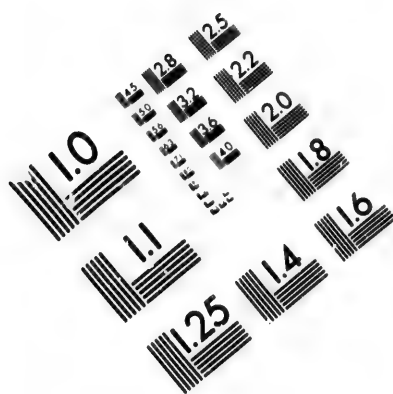
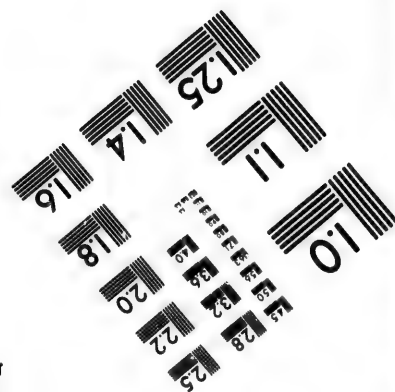
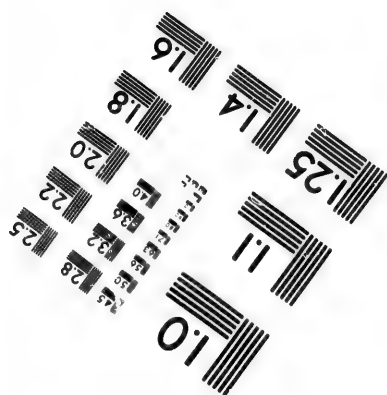
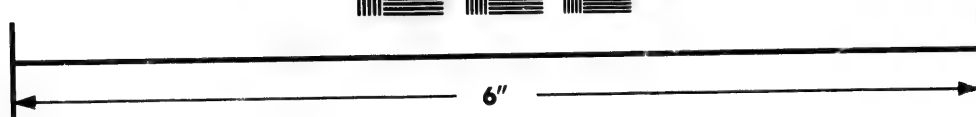
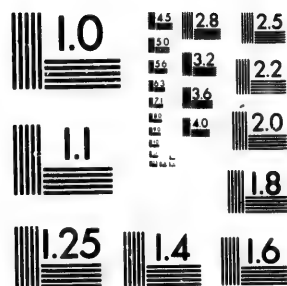


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failed to destroy him. Morelos having repulsed the assault last mentioned, at Cuautla, was afterwards shut up and besieged in that town by Calleja with a largely increased force, but famine did not impair the determination of the defenders, and it was not until all hope of procuring supplies had been abandoned that the place was silently evacuated on the night of the second of May. Other leaders, who began their course under Morelos, invited attention by their conduct during the defense of Cuautla; Bravo and Victoria were among the more prominent at this point, and Guerrero also came into notice for his gallant and successful defense of another town. The leaders thus mentioned became more famous as the war proceeded.

20. — Morelos, in the open field, encountered several divisions of the enemy after his retreat from Cuautla, and in every instance won a victory. At the Grove of Palms, an engagement that lasted three days resulted in the Spaniards retiring to the village, whereupon the place was carried by storm, the assault being led by Gen. Bravo. The father of the successful general was at that time a prisoner in the hands of Venegas, under sentence of death for political offenses, and his son offered three hundred Spaniards captured at Palmar in exchange for the old man's life. Venegas cruelly refused the offer, but the Spaniards were not punished because of the merciless conduct of the Viceroy, as Bravo gave them their liberty on parole.

21. — Oaxaca was carried by storm in November, 1812, in spite of an obstinate defense by the garrison, and the same fortune attended the army of Morelos, when, in the following year, after a siege of six months duration, the city of Acapulco was compelled to surrender its strong fortifications into the keeping of the popular party.

22. — Still pursuing the hope of a more general identification of the people, with the struggle now onward, a national congress was convened in 1813, and that body in conjunction with the central government,

having assembled at Chilpanzingo, declared Mexico independent of Spain in November, 1813.

23.—The fortunes of Morelos had now reached their highest point for some time, and reverses were in store, but not such as to reflect discredit upon the priest, or general. While the National Congress was sitting, Gen. Matamoras fought the second battle of Palmar, inflicting signal losses upon the Spaniards, although their troops were veterans specially sent from Europe to determine the contest. Morelos attacked Valladolid in December, with a force of less than 7,000 men, although his troops were fatigued by toilsome marches and were opposed by Iturbide with a strong garrison. The repulse was sanguinary, and on the following day, Dec. 24, a sally from the town completed the discomfiture of the army of Morelos. The assault by Iturbide would not have proved fatal, in all probability, but for a mistake by a body of cavalry which had been sent to sustain Morelos, but actually charged upon his flanks, supposing that his men were enemies to the popular cause. This incident, at the moment when success and failure were in the balance, routed the army, with the loss of guns and munitions of war.

24.—Iturbide continued his attacks upon the defeated general, never allowing him time to rally. An assault on the 6th of January, 1814, dispersed the troops, and Matamoras was made a prisoner. The hero of Palmar was shot by order of Calleja, now become Viceroy, in spite of the offers of Morelos to exchange a great number of Spaniards for him. When Matamoras was executed, the insurgents slew all their prisoners by way of reprisal. Reverses followed each other. Morelos was brave, wary and active, but nothing prospered with him after the defeat at Valladolid. His troops were outnumbered, his posts captured, the congress broken up, his generals killed on the battle field, or dying on the scaffold, and at last he fell a prisoner into the hands of the royalists. The congress was being convoyed by troops, under his

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own command, when a sudden attack was made by the Spaniards. Morelos ordered Bravo to continue the retreat with the congress, while he, with a small detachment, kept the assailing party in check. The duty was gallantly done, until only one man of the fifty, besides himself, remained to dispute the victory, and then Morelos was captured. Morelos fell at first among men who treated him with great brutality, but Don Manuel Concha, to whom he was afterwards given in charge, made every concession to his prisoner that was consistent with his safe keeping. His trial and execution were very summary proceedings, but Morelos died as he had lived, with honor to the cause of liberty and to his own good name.

25.—There were now many scattered forces under leaders of considerable heroism and capacity, but none of them had attained a national reputation, consequently the cause of the insurgents looked all but hopeless after the deaths of Morelos and Matamoras; still the contest was not abandoned and the jealousies of the several leaders did not completely mar the chances of ultimate success. The principal chiefs were Padre Torres, Guerrero, Teran, Rayon, Victoria and Bravo.

26.—Torres, naturally vindictive and false, was a terror in the district of the Baxia, in his half military, half priestly, character. The whole district was allotted among men who had but one merit in his or in any other eyes, their fidelity to their leader. The authority wielded by Torres was exerted for purely personal ends generally, but his influence was mainly given on the popular side, and his devastations afflicted the whole community. Under his protection there continued for some time to be a junta which published decrees, but there was not even a show of authority for their edicts beyond the ground covered by the arms of the Padre Torres.

27.—Guerrero maintained himself in the fastnesses of the mountains, on the western coast, until 1821,

when he made a combination with Iturbide for the movement then commenced. Bravo maintained his career heroically against superior numbers in different parts of the country until 1817, when his forces being dispersed, he was taken prisoner and conveyed to Mexico. Rayon was in command in the northern districts of Valladolid province, where he defended his stronghold against Iturbide with marked courage, repelling a furious assault on the 4th of March, 1815. The place was not surrendered until January, 1817, when Rayon was absent, and soon afterwards the courageous lawyer was made a prisoner, being confined in Mexico until the proceedings of 1821 reversed the order of events. Teran confined his operations to the Province of Puebla, where the national congress was for some time under his protection, but eventually that body was disbanded by his orders, and the military necessities of the time. He was enabled to maintain a kind of guerrilla war with occasional successes, until the close of the year 1816, and if arms could have been obtained for his followers, much more would have been possible; but under the circumstances he could only surrender in January, 1817, having made terms that secured him against the fate which had overtaken greater generals in the earlier years of the struggle. Teran remained at La Puebla until 1821, when his services were once more in request.

28.—Victoria alone remains to be mentioned of all the scattered leaders. He was stationed in the province of Vera Cruz, with a force about 2,000 strong, and the Viceroy found him an unwearied source of perplexity for more than two years. Thousands of troops were sent from Spain to subdue Victoria, and a strong chain of forts at length closed him in. His old soldiers died in harness, and it was not easy to recruit his ranks, so that he was at length left alone to face the power which he had so long combatted. Even in this strait he could have made terms with the Viceroy,

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but he preferred to wander away into the mountains and bide his time.

29. — The Indians were strongly disposed to suc-
cor the wandering chief, and at first all his wants
were abundantly supplied, but Apodaca, the Viceroy,
made it so perilous to harbor Victoria that he was re-
duced to terrible extremities by want of sustenance
during a long illness, and the pursuit was abandoned
at length, because a body, supposed to have been the
remains of the famous leader, was brought in by the
troops sent to capture him. The trials and escapes of
Victoria would form the basis of an admirable poem,
and it is probable that imagination has already been
exercised in that sphere, but at the end of three years,
when the revolution of 1821 was impending, Victoria,
long supposed dead, emerged from his hiding place
and was welcomed by his former followers with such
enthusiasm that the people largely accepted him as
their leader in the new emergency. The constancy of
the man that had never submitted to the usurping
party entitled him to much honor.

30. — Immediately before the dispersal of Victo-
ria's force, a Spaniard named Don Xavier Mina landed
at Soto la Marina with a force of about 350 men,
many of them being officers of assured courage and
capacity, and with this body as the nucleus of an army
that he felt certain he could collect, he hoped to estab-
lish a free government in Mexico, subject constitution-
ally to Spain. Mina had distinguished himself in
Spain by his regard for constitutional liberty but had
been driven out of the country in consequence. Part
of Mina's small army deserted him at Soto la Marina,
but he had still about three hundred in all.

31. — A body of men, so well appointed, landing
when Morelos was in the beginning of his career,
would in all likelihood have helped to win victory to
the popular standard, but there was no longer any en-
thusiasm among the Indians or Creoles, and the fact
of Mina being a Spaniard and remaining faithful to

Spain severed him from the people, who alone could recruit his ranks; still the brave man and his party pushed their way into the country and their daring won successes against large disparities of force.

32. — Having garrisoned Soto la Marina, Mina set out with two hundred men and at Valle de Maiz routed twice his number of cavalry, but at Peotillos he was confronted by two thousand men, under Gen. Arminan, nearly half of the force being Spanish troops that had served against Napoleon in the Peninsular campaigns. When arrangements had been completed for guarding his military stores, Mina had diminished his force by thirty men, and the remainder, prepared for death, determined to meet it in one terrific onset. Contrary to their expectations, the vastly superior force fled in an unaccountable panic and the rout was complete. Pinos was surprised soon afterwards and at Sombrero a large accession of insurgents gave him welcome, the first during his march of six hundred miles.

33. — On the 28th of June, 1817, after only four days allowed for repose, Mina, now four hundred strong, knowing that ceaseless activity was the only condition upon which success could be obtained, started in pursuit of Gen. Castanon whose force was at least seven hundred, and routed them, with great slaughter, on the 29th, over five hundred being killed, wounded or taken prisoners in the engagement.

34. — Mina, still carrying victory with him, took possession of the Hacienda of Jaral, where he found \$200,000 in silver, a seasonable addition to his treasury, but the jealousy of Padre Torres in the district of Paxio, prevented any large accession of force, consequently the body of the troops were stationed at Sombrero, whence Mina, still intent upon his mission, set out to rouse the people. Los Remedios, a fort held by the troops of Torres, was besieged by a superior force, and Sombrero, invested by 4,000 regular troops, was in so much danger, that the garrison con-

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cluded to cut their way through the lines of the enemy, and less than fifty of the whole corps escaped alive.

35.—Intent upon creating a division in favor of Los Remedios, Mina attacked the town of Guanajuato with his new recruits, and was prospering in his enterprise, until they suddenly refused to advance and were routed by the garrison, which had rallied in the interval. The tide of the victory had been lost. Mina learned about this time that his garrison at Soto la Marina had been captured, and he was himself taken at Venadito a few days later. Apodaca caused him to be shot in sight of the garrison of Los Remedios, which he would have relieved. Thus the embers of the attempted revolution were being extinguished. Torres, unwilling to cooperate with any other leader, was killed by one of his own officers. Guerrero as we have seen was cut off from communication, Victoria was in his hiding place, and there was hardly a symptom of danger for the authority of Spain in the colonies.

36.—It seems probable that Hidalgo might have won the struggle at the outset, if he had possessed the talent and policy of Morelos, but the superior clergy were on the side of Spain, and the cruelties perpetrated on the popular side had the twofold effect of disgusting friends, while making the Spaniards desperate. Morelos deserved a better fate, but with his death there fell all hope of success in that movement, the country was deluged with fresh troops from Spain, the leaders were taken in detail and the revolution was drowned in the blood of its defenders, until the time of the national resurrection.

IV. ADOPTING A CONSTITUTION.

1820-1824.

1.—Spain had conceded a Constitution to Mexico in 1820, and the minds of men were once more agitated with visions of freedom in Madrid, as well as in the New World. The Spanish party had now become

divided, the more conservative element hating innovations, even when legally obtained, the more radical loving change almost on its own account. The church had suffered in some material respects, and that necessitated an influential party of reactionaries, and Apudaca saw that there was an opportunity to return to the old ways, although he had sworn allegiance to the new.

2. — Gen. Iturbide, the officer whose successes were the downfall of Morelos, was secretly encouraged by the Viceroy, to raise the standard of revolt, and an army placed at his disposal to vindicate absolute authority on the part of Ferdinand; but the General, bettering his instructions, used the force to establish independence of Mexico, having faith that he could thereby establish a good understanding between his Creole regiments and the insurgent party routed finally in 1819.

3. — The plan of Iguala, as Iturbide's scheme was called, secured the concurrence of the soldiers, who took an oath to sustain it on the 24th of February, 1821. The throne was to be offered to Ferdinand, king of Spain, if he would reign in person, but failing such consent, then his younger brothers were to have succession; and in any case, there were to be constitutional limitations, the nation must be independent, and the state religion Catholic. A Congress was to be convened to frame a constitution, to which all must be sworn, and under that document Spaniards, Creoles, Indians and Africans were to share alike the privileges of citizenship, without distinction, save such as merit warranted.

4. — Apudaca was deposed from his position as Viceroy, and Don Francisco Novello was nominated his successor, but Iturbide was the virtual ruler. The insurgent generals, Victoria and Guerrero, joined in the movement, and the Creoles, encouraged by the clergy, flocked to the standard of revolution. All the country, with the exception of the capital city, adhered

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from his position as Iturbide was nominated a virtual ruler. The Guerrero, joined in encouraged by the revolution. All the capital city, adhered

to Iturbide, and Novello was closely environed there, depending upon his European troops, whose fealty was doubtful.

5.—While things were in this condition, a new Viceroy arrived at Vera Cruz, and Iturbide, leaving his main body at Queretaro, met the new comer at Cordova, fifty miles from his landing place, where terms were made under which the independence of Mexico was formally recognized on the basis named at Iguala. The treaty of Cordova made the insurgents masters of the capital, without bloodshed, on the 27th of September, 1821, and a provisional government was formed, having for its chief duty to convene the Congress already provided for. Iturbide was named head of a Council of Regency, consisting of five members, his salary being settled at \$120,000 per annum, and his duties including the command of the forces by sea and land.

6.—The popular favorite was master of the situation, and his will was law until the preparations were advanced for convening the Congress, when Iturbide wished to insert a condition that all the deputies should be bound by oath to sustain the plan framed at Iguala, as a condition precedent to their assumption of office. Guerrero, Bravo and Victoria, leading the old insurgents, demanded that the deputies should be left free to give expression to the will of the people. The difficulty was accommodated, and Iturbide carried his point, but disintegration had commenced before the Congress assembled. There were three parties in that body: Bourbonists, who followed the plan of Iguala; Republicans, whose name reveals their purpose, and Iturbidists, who preferred that leader as King instead of a Bourbon. The national government simplified the quarrel by annulling the treaty of Cordova, and the only questions remaining were, Shall there be a republic, or shall Iturbide be King?

7.—The Republicans were in a majority, and, as a measure of precaution, the army was to be reduced to

a peace standard; but before such an arrangement could be carried out Iturbide was proclaimed King on the 18th of May, 1822, the lower section of the populace combining with the soldiery for that purpose. The newly proclaimed King submitted the question to Congress, which was now surrounded by his friends, and in the presence of an overwhelming force, the change popularly made was authorized. The provinces sent in their adhesion to the chosen monarch, and Iturbide was more than ever master of the destinies of Mexico.

8. — The limitations to be placed upon the King were now considered by Congress, and Iturbide demanded such powers as would hardly have been conceded to the hereditary successor to a throne over a free people. The Constitution must be subject to his veto, and the judges owe to him their offices, besides which, as the quarrel progressed, a proposal was made that the King or Emperor should appoint military tribunals. Congress refused concurrence. The principal opponents were imprisoned, and when the recalcitrant Assembly protested, Iturbide dismissed his Parliament, nominating in its stead a Junta of his own friends and adherents.

9. — The Junta did as his majesty desired, but the people gave no adhesion to the new body, having been weaned from the Emperor Augustin, as Iturbide was styled, by his arbitrary assumption. Gen. Santa Anna who had been Governor of Vera Cruz, and had been dismissed by the Emperor, published an address in December, demanding the reassembly of Congress and reproaching Iturbide with broken obligations. There had been an insurrection in November in the northern provinces, but that was easily suppressed; this was a more formidable movement. Victoria served under the banner of Santa Anna, and Bravo as well as Guerrero took the field to cooperate with him. Forces sent to quell the tumult joined the insurgents, part of the army was in open revolt, dissatisfaction was all

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but universal, and on the 19th of March, 1823, the Emperor Augustin formally resigned the crown to a reassembly of such members of Congress as could be gathered for the occasion. Upon the statement that he intended to leave the country to prevent an effusion of blood, Congress, while condemning his assumption of the imperial title, voted him \$25,000 per year for life, and he with his family embarked for Leghorn in the succeeding May, 1823.

10. — Gens. Bravo, Victoria and Negrete were named as a provisional government upon the abdication of Iturbide, and in August a new Congress assembled to prepare a constitution, which was submitted to the popular vote after the 31st of January, 1824, being sanctioned in the following October. The constitution of the United States was generally accepted as a model, the provinces became a Federal Republic, and legislative power was vested in two chambers. The details of representation were according to the model. The President was to hold supreme executive authority, and he must be of Mexican birth, 35 years old at least, and be elected by the legislatures of the provinces for four years. The Supreme court was to be elected by the legislatures, but subject to removal only in certain cases specified by law.

11. — The several provinces or states must conform to the federal act, and enforce the laws of the Union as well as transmit annual statements of their financial operations, with other particulars, to the general government. New industries were to be protected, and the fullest liberty of the press, without license or censorship. Law suits must not be commenced until arbitration had failed. Education was to be disseminated, roads were to be opened, copyrights and patents were to be made cheaply available, foreign trade was to be invited by free ports, immigrants were encouraged by the extension of naturalization, and many abuses which had endured under the old systems were summarily ended. Trial by jury was not adopted,

and the courts were somewhat too secret in their proceedings; but the poorest feature in the programme revealed the finger of the priesthood, in the prohibition of any form of religion except "the Roman Catholic Apostolic," which was legislatively established in perpetuity.

12.—The Ex-Emperor Iturbide, after remaining some time in Italy, returned to Mexico, in spite of a sentence of outlawry pronounced against him. Having landed at Soto la Marina in disguise in July, 1824, he was shot at Padillo on the 19th of that month by Gen. Garza, by order of the provincial Congress of Tamaulipas. His family settled in Philadelphia, and Maximilian subsequently recognized their princely rank.

V. THE REPUBLIC.

1824-1846.

1.—Gen. Guadalupe Victoria was installed as the first President of the Republic of Mexico, in the beginning of January, 1825, and Gen. Bravo Vice President, by the first Congress chosen under the constitution and sitting in the capital. Two years of the four for which the President had been chosen passed in harmony and prosperity, such as the country had hardly ever known since the days of Montezuma: but towards the end of 1826 trouble appeared. There had been insurrections to a small extent, but only such as were easily suppressed, under President Victoria. Two sections of the Masonic Fraternity, one under the New York constitution, and the other under the Scotch, divided the country into hostile factions, one seeking a purely democratic government, and the other a strong monarchy, under one of the Bourbon family. The *Escocés* were the monarchists, the *Yorkinos* were the democrats. The usual exaggerations of party warfare kept the country alive with mutual accusations, while the people were electing their representatives to Congress in the autumn of 1826, and bribery is said to have been resorted to largely.

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2.—President Victoria may be assumed to have steered clear of the machinations of both parties, as we find him accused on each side with having favored the other. Many elections were annulled in consequence of the illegal practices by which improper ends had been sought, and it was claimed that the *Yorkinos* meditated and conspired for the expulsion of all Spaniards from Mexico, but the first open breach of the law came from the Monarchists, when, on the 23d of December, 1827, a plan for the forcible reform of the government was proclaimed at Otumba by Don Manuel Montano. The programme revealed included the abolition of secret societies, dismissal of ministers from their several departments, more rigorous enforcement of the constitution and laws, and dismissal of the United States Minister, Mr. Poinsett, who was credited with being the main director of the *Yorkinos*.

3.—Gen. Bravo assumed the command of the insurgents, accusing the President of favoring the *Yorkinos*, and that party claimed that the movement of denunciation was part of the monarchist scheme of the *Escoces* to impose the Bourbon yoke upon the people. Guerrero was the recognized chief of the *Yorkinos*, and the conduct of Bravo compeiled the President to ally himself with that party in defense of order. Guerrero was placed in command of the national forces. Bravo, who was resolved to spare the effusion of blood, submitted, and was banished by a Congressional decree, on the 15th of April, 1828. Guerrero was now looked upon as certain to be elected to succeed the first President, but Gen. Pedraza, another candidate set up by the Scotch party, was chosen in September, 1828, by a small majority. The result of this selection was, that the *Yorkinos* determined upon an appeal to arms. Had the election been otherwise determined, probably the *Escoces* would have taken a similar course. Pretexts could not be long wanting in either case.

4.—Gen. Santa Anna led off the new rebellion

with an address claiming that the people did not sanction the choice of Pedraza, and, on the 10th of September, he took possession of the Castle of Perote, proclaiming Guerrero the newly elected President. Victoria assumed the duty of repressing the insurrection, Santa Anna was besieged in the fortress and very narrowly escaped capture, but, after his escape, there was so little inclination to support the movement that he surrendered, on the 14th of December, to Gen. Calderon. Thus the Yorkinos were apparently subdued.

5. — The struggle was not ended. The capital had become the headquarters of the Yorkinos, and their manipulations were unceasing. Many of the chiefs engaged in the movement were adepts in revolt, and on the night of the 30th of November, the government guard at the artillery barracks being surprised and overpowered, the congress was notified that unless a decree was passed to banish all the Spanish residents, within one day, a general massacre of all such persons would be undertaken. The force by means of which this revolution was effected was a battalion of militia under the Marquis of Cadena and a regiment under Col. Garcia. There was no force available by which the President could subdue the insurgents, and while terms were being debated the Guerrero party reinforced the rebellion, which, rendered stronger by the adhesion of the rabble incited by hopes of plunder, proclaimed Guerrero President. That officer was in the city and harangued the populace, but afterwards with an escort retired to abide the issue.

6. — Some troops having come in from the country, there were forces at the disposal of the President, but he was not as energetic as the *Escocés* thought he should have been, and on that account his movements were looked upon with suspicion, as being meant to favor the Yorkinos. December first was spent in attempts at pacification, but on the second

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there was a vigorous attack on the insurgents, many posts being captured from them, but on the following day they rallied with additional forces and resumed their former advantages, with much loss of blood on both sides. The Guerrero party became victors on the fourth of December, the regular troops dispersed, and Congress declared its own dissolution, after protesting against the reign of violence and insurrection.

7.—Anarchy now ruled in the capital, the mob seized upon all kinds of valuable property, under the pretense of rage against the Spaniards, and stores were sacked of goods to the amount of millions of dollars. Guerrero, who had been a slave, was credited by his opponents with being quite in sympathy with the plunderers, but he was at length installed by Victoria as War Minister, in the place of Peraza, who retired from the capital. Civil war was seriously apprehended, but order was restored by Gen. Guerrero, and Gen. Pedraza, the President elect, sacrificed his claims to the interest of peace, by resigning his office and procuring permission to quit the republic. When the Congress assembled on the 1st of January, 1829, Guerrero having next to Pedraza the majority of votes, was declared President, under a compromise arranged by Mr. Poinsett, the United States Minister; Gen. Bustamante was named Vice President, and the Yorkino party filled every office. Santa Anna, who in December surrendered at discretion to Gen. Calderon, was now made Minister of War as a reward for his eminent services, taking command of the troops and officers to whom he had just surrendered.

8.—The first change of President was thus effected by force of arms, and the constitutional liberties of Mexico were set at nought. Guerrero continued to rely upon force as the means of retaining the power which had been won by its aid, and the lesson of success had been learned by others besides the President. Spain invaded Mexico, and the presence of the army of 4,000 men was made the pretext for conferring

upon the President the powers of a dictator, and when the danger had passed away by the surrender of the force to Santa Anna within two months, Guerrero clung to the dangerous distinction. The Vice President Bustamante, who was in command of troops to repel the invaders, marched upon Mexico to compel Guerrero to abandon the dictatorship, and after a show of resistance from Santa Anna, that General joined the Vice President in compelling Guerrero to resign the Presidency, which was at once assumed by Bustamante. In the year 1831, Guerrero was captured and shot at Cailapa, for an attempt at revolution. The administration under the new President was supported by the military, the wealthier Creoles and the priesthood, who desired to see a strong central government, such as they could control, but the federal government carried the majority of votes. The strife caused by the designs of Bustamante was the occasion of Guerrero's ill-omened reappearance at Valladolid, with the result already mentioned.

9. — Bustamante was next disturbed, in 1832, by the proceedings of Santa Anna, who demanded a reorganization of the ministry, and enforced his arguments by heading the garrison at Vera Cruz. A struggle, which lasted nearly twelve months, was terminated by an armistice, and Bustamante resigned the Presidency to Pedraza, who received the majority of votes in 1828. Santa Anna conducted Pedraza in great state to Mexico, to complete the term of his original election, just three months still remaining; and it seemed evident that Pedraza was only used as a means to secure the election of Santa Anna himself for the succeeding term. The successful General was chosen President, and Gomaz Farias, Vice President, and the federal system was once more established; but within two weeks the plan of *San Augustine de las Cuevas* was published by Gen. Duran, favoring the church and the army, and making Santa Anna Supreme Dictator. The President was really favorable

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The Vice President commanded troops to Mexico to compel him, and after a show that General joined Guerrero to resign assumed by Bustamante was captured and the revolution. The

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to the movement, but he raised an army to put it down, nominated Arista, a well known Centralist, his second in command, and marched to quell the insurrection. Arista then in due course sided with the revolt, seized Santa Anna and compelled him to be Dictator. The troops in the city were ready to sustain the movement, but the Vice President used his authority to prevent the consummation of the scheme, and Santa Anna, being allowed to escape, raised another army, put down the movement, pardoned Arista, banished Duran, and was welcomed as the savior of his country.

10.—Retiring to his estate while his reputation as a patriot was good, the direction of affairs fell upon Farias, who acted with Congress in curbing the pretensions of the priesthood and the soldiery, as well as in general schemes of retrenchment. The reaction came just as Santa Anna seems to have anticipated, and the President then pronounced against the federal system, becoming the active leader of the Centralists. The Congress was dismissed by military *prestige*, and a new Congress convened contrary to law, pending the election and assembling of which, the powers of a Dictator were used by the President to destroy constitutional authority. There was a considerable amount of agitation, but the priests and the military acting in concert with Santa Anna, triumphed over popular sentiment. The unlawful congress decreed the annulment of the federal constitution, established a strong central government, represented by Santa Anna, deposed Gomez Farias, and elected Gen. Barragan as Vice President in his stead to do the will of the faction.

11.—The militia of the several states being a standing menace to absolute power, Congress ordered that there should be a general reduction and disarming of that force, but that decree was not concurred in peaceably by all parties. Zacatecas claimed its state right to continue its militia, and refused to disarm or

disband, but Santa Anna marched against the state, the militia was overpowered, the city of Zacatecas surrendered, and that opposition came to an end. The plan of Toluca was then promulgated, abolishing state legislatures and seeking to convert the government into a pure aristocracy, the will of one man ruling, and his authority to be maintained in the military departments, commanded by his subordinates. The next step was taken by Gen. Barragan as acting President, who published a congressional decree establishing a Central Republic, a simple act of usurpation.

12.—Many of the states were energetic in denouncing the decree of 1836, but they were not ready with a force sufficient to overawe the dictator, and with the exception of Texas, which had not been admitted as a state, they were all reduced to submission speedily. Texas had for some time disputed the will of Santa Anna, and many citizens from the United States having been attracted to that region, the contest tended against the Dictator. Before the close of 1835, the government troops had been driven out of Texas. Santa Anna demanded the unconditional surrender of arms by the Texans, and he was answered by an offer on the part of the Texans assembled in convention at San Felipe, to coalesce with any state to resist Santa Anna. This condition of affairs was so dangerous to the general scheme of the Dictator, that he concluded in favor of leading an army into Texas to subdue the revolt in person. Gen. Mexia had attempted to rouse the Mexican federalists generally by an attack upon Tampico, the force having been recruited in New Orleans on the understanding that its destination was Texas. Mexia escaped, but the attack proved a failure, and twenty-eight of the men were shot under sentences passed by a military court. Santa Anna, with an army of 8,000 men, arrived at San Antonio de Bexar early in 1836, and that town was speedily reduced.

13.—The immense superiority of numbers on the

against the state, city of Zacatecas came to an end. Aligned, abolishing convert the govern- all of one man ruled in the military subordinates. The man as acting President decree establish- of usurpation. energetic in de- they were not ready the dictator, and had not been ad- uced to submission e disputed the will s from the United at region, the con- Before the close of been driven out of unconditional sur- d he was answered exans assembled in ce with any state n of affairs was so t the Dictator, that n army into Texas Gen. Mexia had at- talists generally by e having been re- derstanding that its aped, but the attack t of the men were a military court. 00 men, arrived at 836, and that town of numbers on the

side of Santa Anna gave him the victory in many desperate actions, and his cruelty was revolting in the extreme, but the result was not what he had hoped for in the end. General Sam. Houston who had figured in the Congress of the United States, and also as Governor of Tennessee, suddenly attacked Santa Anna's Camp on the San Jacinto, routing 1,500 men well prepared and not surprised, with a force of 780. The whole force of the invading army then within reach was killed, wounded or taken, and the general was among the prisoners. The native contingent of the Texan Army would have given Santa Anna a taste of his own cruel policy, but Gen. Houston spared his life and allowed him to depart after some months captivity, having compelled a recognition of the independence of Texas. This disaster was a severe blow to Santa Anna, as upon his return to Mexico he found himself practically superseded, and for some years his reputation did not lose the blot thus incurred.

14. — General Barragan had assumed the duties of president on Santa Anna's departure for Texas, but his death left the way clear for Bustamante, who was chosen President. There were some demonstrations in favor of federation, and Gomez Farias, still a prisoner, was not without friends, who in the absence of Santa Anna, hoped that they might help him by an insurrection; but the disturbances were partial and therefore without result. Mexia gave to Santa Anna an opportunity to distinguish himself once more in 1838. That unfortunate leader was conducting a band of patriots towards the capital, when he was overpowered at Puebla by a force under Santa Anna. Mexia was shot on the field of battle by the orders of his conqueror, and only a few minutes were permitted him to communicate his wishes to paper for transmission to his family.

15. — Santa Anna was now once more before the public and in the way to retrieve his repute. Early in 1838, a French fleet demanded reparation for damages

suffered by French citizens in some of the numerous popular commotions. The demand, not being complied with, was followed by a blockade, and in the winter of 1838-9 Vera Cruz was attacked by French troops. Santa Anna undertook the management of the defense, and lost a leg in the service at this point.

16. — Gomez Farias having procured his release, and still being recognized as one of the Federalist leaders, headed an insurrection in the capital in July, 1840, and, aided by Gen. Urrea, captured the President. Street fighting continued for twelve days, when a general amnesty was agreed upon, and some hopes of reform pacified the federalists for a time. Yucatan declared for Federation about the same time and withdrew from the Union. This state had not been in any way identified with Mexico until the act of federation induced her to throw in her lot with the Republic, but her rising in 1840 was followed by three years' desultory fighting, after which she returned into the Confederacy. Insurrections were continuous in some portion of the Republic and revolutions not uncommon. Paredes declared against the government of Bustamante in August, 1841, at Guadalajara, and thereupon, a rising took place in the capital, which was followed by a similar movement in Vera Cruz, headed by Santa Anna. Bustamante succumbed to those assaults and a convention of commanders at Tacubaya arranged the terms for an amnesty and reconstruction of the government by a congress to be convened for that purpose.

17. — Santa Anna as General in Chief was named in the plan of Tacubaya, as nominator of the Junta, that must choose a temporary President, and he selected men who nominated himself for that office. The selection of the Congress could thus be influenced by the acting president, but when that body showed an inclination to legislate in a manner not satisfactory to him, he dissolved Congress and nominated another Assembly to prepare a constitution after his own mind.

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which was proclaimed in July, 1843. The Constitu- tion preserved the name of popular representation, but placed the government in the hands of the President, and insisted upon a property qualification for electors, who were practically powerless in all national affairs. Santa Anna was chosen President, with the powers of a Dictator under the Constitution. The plan of Tacubaya had stipulated that Santa Anna, as provisional president, should render an account to the Constitu- tional Congress, but that stipulation was set aside by the President.

18. — The term of five years for which the Presi- dent had been chosen commenced in January, 1844, and one of the first acts of Congress was to vote \$4,000,000 for the purpose of making war on Texas. Santa Anna wanted power to raise a loan of \$10,000,000 for the same war, but Congress declined the larger responsibility, and inasmuch as the contribution order- ed scarcely produced enough money to meet the daily expenses of the government, the war scheme languish- ed and died out. Santa Anna was not popular in Congress, and he was more unpopular among the peo- ple, who saw in him the representation of military power only. When it became necessary to nominate an *ad interim* President, the ministry only carried their nominee by one vote. It was a favorite ruse with Santa Anna to procure the nomination of deputies to his work, so that he could control the office and yet be irresponsible for what was done.

19. — Demands for reform were made by the As- sembly at Jalisco soon after Santa Anna's temporary retirement, and the object sought was a revolution, as it would have made the President responsible for his acts as provisional president. Paredes took sides with the Jalisco Assembly, declaring against Santa Anna, and he was soon at the head of 1,400 men, having his headquarters at Lagos. Canalizo, the acting President, gave the management of the war against Paredes into the hands of Santa Anna, who with 8,500 troops set

out for the capital. Professions of loyalty were plentiful enough, as long as his army was to be depended upon, but the President knew internally that words are but poor indexes of the state of the mind, among men of his caliber, and he wisely doubted. Congress reminded him that he transgressed constitutional limits, by commanding the troops in person, unless at their request, and they did not supply the request which they saw to be wanting. He set out for Queretaro to assume the control of a force of 13,000 men, and on the same day the War Minister was impeached for having signed the order under which Santa Anna was acting.

20. — Congress was not friendly to Santa Anna, and upon his arrival at Queretaro, he found that the Assembly there had pronounced in favor of the Jalisco demands. The Assembly was ordered to rescind its *pronunciamento*, and upon its refusal to do so the members were arrested. Congress demanded an account of such proceedings from the Minister of War and the acting President, and the response was a dissolution of the recalcitrant body, the doors being locked and guarded by troops, and all the powers of government were conferred upon Santa Anna, by his own deputy. Puebla then offered an asylum and protection to Congress, both garrison and people declaring against the government. The dissolution of Congress by force took place on the 1st of December, and on the 6th the people rose in arms, the military siding with them. Canalizo, the acting President and his ministers were imprisoned, the revolution was consummated, Gen. Herrera was chosen Provisional President and a new ministry was named.

21. — The regular army was still under the command of Santa Anna, and he was not likely to allow one chance to escape him, whether he had heard or had not heard of the great rejoicings over his downfall. He marched against Puebla, but the insurgents surrounded him, and his own troops were infected. His

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assaults were ineffectual, and eventually the besieger was imprisoned by the people whom he was besieging; nor was he permitted his liberty until several months later, when Congress had pronounced upon him a decree of perpetual banishment.

22. — The admission of Texas to the Union as one of the United States, in 1845-6, was made the occasion for the Mexican Minister at Washington to demand his passports. Texas had been an independent republic since 1836, under President Houston, and no attempt had been made to reclaim the territory since the disastrous defeat of Santa Anna, but the act of the Minister was approved by Gen. Herrera, the acting President, and it became evident that war was imminent. Mexican troops were ordered to approach the debated land, and, in view of such demonstrations, Gen. Taylor, in command of United States troops, was sent into Texas to be prepared for emergencies.

23. — Herrera, having used the war policy to secure his election in August, 1845, saw very clearly that his nation could not cope with the United States, and in consequence he was willing to treat with the stronger power. Paredes found in that circumstance a justification for revolt against Herrera, and although Congress gave the President dictatorial authority to quell the insurrection, the regular troops gave their adhesion to Paredes, and the end of Herrera's rule had arrived. The triumph of the war party in Mexico rendered it necessary for the United States to take action to secure Texas against invasion, and Gen. Taylor advanced towards the Rio Grande. Hostilities were commenced by the Mexican troops, and the battles of Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, and some petty engagements speedily convinced those most interested that Gen. Herrera was right in desiring peace. Matamoros surrendered, the Heights of Monterey were stormed, and the city capitulated on the 24th of September, 1846. Prior to this time, Col. Fremont, with a small body of troops, had conquered Upper California, in conjunction

with a squadron of United States vessels under Commodore Sloat, and Gen. Kearney had, as part of the same general movement, captured the city and valley of Santa Fe.

24.—Paredes did not long exercise the power wrested from Herrera. He was deposed by Santa Anna, whose sentence of perpetual banishment had been annulled by the revolutionary party in the ascendant, and that General, once more directing the government of Mexico, found himself confronted with a foe that could teach him the art and practice of war in a manner beyond his experience. The history of this era of Mexican development having been written with sufficient detail in describing the administration of President Polk in the pages devoted to the United States, the reader is referred to that account to avoid needless repetition here.

VI. AFTER THE WAR.

To the Death of Juarez. 1846-1872.

1.—The necessity to raise funds to prosecute the war with the United States was made use of by Gomez Farias to attack the patrimony of the Church in the latter part of the year 1846, when it was determined that a sum of \$14,000,000 should be procured, either by sale of some parts of the property of the Church, or by loans secured upon the same possessions. Benito Pablo Juarez, of pure Indian parentage, challenged attention by his earnestness in urging this measure in the Federal Congress of 1846, and the decree was made; but Santa Anna could not permit the Church to be dispoiled, and in consequence the will of Congress was set aside. It was useless to argue that the Church ought to bear part of the cost of the general defense, in which her safety formed part, as only one idea weighed with Santa Anna. The Church was necessary to him as an ally, and therefore the property must be protected.

2.—It is but justice to Santa Anna to say that

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from the hour of his return to power, upon his re-
call from the sentence of perpetual banishment, until
the end of the war in 1847, his courage and en-
ergy were beyond praise, and the great preponder-
ance of troops on his side was such as to give
very reasonable grounds for anticipating victory.
At Buena Vista, the Mexican force was 20,000 op-
posed to 5,000 or rather less, of which number 4,500
were volunteers on their first battle-field. Very
nearly the same proportions were observable on
other of the great fields in this war, consequently no
blame could attach to the defeated general. He pro-
cured the best material that the country could afford,
and as much as seemed to be requisite for the service,
besides which, it must be admitted that the troops
fought well. The condition of the country could not
be considered in the presence of hostile troops arriv-
ing by land and sea and overrunning the whole terri-
tory. Mexico, occupied by United States soldiers,
submitted to military rule without finding much more
to complain of than had been endured at the hands of
the native government. The dismemberment of Mexi-
co, to procure peace, was one of the bitter necessities
of an unsuccessful war. Herrera would have met the
Texas difficulty with negotiations. Paredes took the
opportunity to drive him from office, and, before many
months had passed, was himself glad to procure an
amistice, which was ended by Santa Anna's assump-
tion of command, only to terminate at last in a com-
plete and humiliating defeat with loss of valuable ter-
ritory.

3.—The career of Santa Anna was not ended
even when his prowess had failed to repel the Ameri-
can troops. In the enfeebled condition of Mexico,
it was no longer possible to hold the several prov-
inces together with a firm hand. The strong cen-
tral government, so much desired, was less than ever
possible, and many of the provinces revolted, Oaxa-
ca, among others, having maintained the disposition

of her own affairs for many years under the rule of Juarez as Governor; but Santa Anna, always intriguing, procured a further term of office, reduced the province to subjection, imprisoned and banished his opponents, and continued to rule until, in the year 1855, Gen. Alvarez, having taken command of an insurrectionary force at Acapulco, finally deposed Santa Anna, and was himself proclaimed President in October, 1855.

4. — Gen. Alvarez was quite an old man when he accepted office, and the greater responsibilities were thus cast upon the younger and more energetic men with whom he had surrounded himself. Juarez, since so deservedly famous in connection with Mexican history, was his Minister of Justice, and was also charged with the superintendence of ecclesiastical affairs; and Gen. Ignacio Comonfort, with whom Alvarez had for some time been associated, was the ruling spirit in the cabinet. There was not a good understanding between the different members of the government, and, in consequence, when the President finally devolved upon Comonfort the principal duties of his office by making him provisional President, Juarez retired from the cabinet and resumed his provincial duties in Oaxaca as Governor. The reforms introduced by Juarez in his departments were distasteful to Comonfort because they swept over too much ground, whereas he desired to concentrate his attention upon the church, being determined to curb its privileges. This fact was so well understood that several revolts were in train against the provisional President, and one came into full operation; but Comonfort crushed the movement, and, in 1856, issued a decree confiscating church properties for the benefit of the State. The priests and reactionaries generally were bitterly opposed to the new *regime*.

5. — Comonfort was proclaimed constitutional President in 1857, and at the same time Juarez was elected to a position in the cabinet as President of the Federal Supreme Court, or Chief Justice; but Comonfort al-

years under the rule of Santa Anna, always a term of office, reduced to rule until, in the year 1855, he had taken command of an insurrection, finally deposed Santa Anna and assumed the Presidency in October.

He was an old man when he assumed the responsibilities of the Presidency, and more energetic men than he were in the country. Juarez, since so long associated with Mexican history, and was also charged with the management of ecclesiastical affairs; and General Alvarez had for some time been a leading spirit in the cabinet. The difference of opinion between the different parties, and, in consequence, the division of power, involved upon Comonfort the necessity of making him president by making him president of the cabinet and of the State in Oaxaca as Governor. Juarez in his departments because they swept over the country, he desired to concentrate the power, being determined to do so, was so well understood to train against the provisions of the constitution into full operation; but the government, and, in 1856, issued laws for the benefit of the properties for the benefit of the reactionaries generally and a new regime.

He assumed the constitutional Presidency at the time Juarez was elected President of the Federal Republic; but Comonfort al-

lowed himself to be compromised in the plot of Zuloaga, which afforded an opportunity for his enemies in the church and the army to drive him into exile in the beginning of 1858. The original want of agreement between Juarez and Comonfort was apparent during the last brief term of office, as the President had caused Juarez to be arrested and imprisoned pending the execution of his share in the conspiracy that ended in his own banishment; but immediately before his flight from the capital, Comonfort set Juarez at liberty, and he used his opportunity to return to Oaxaca, where he had won the hearts of nearly all the community.

6. — The military party, backed by the priests, were now masters of the situation; but the people were restive under the yoke, and a popular assembly was convened at Guanajuato to concert measures for their overthrow. The choice of all classes fell upon Juarez to head this effort of the states, and under the constitution as President Judge, he was proclaimed President in January, 1858. There were now so few resources available on the side of the people, that Juarez and his government were compelled to retire to Guadalajara, and part of the garrison in that place under Lieut. Col. Landa pronounced for reaction, so that the President and cabinet were made prisoners in the palace and in momentary danger of death. Beyond doubt the reactionaries would have executed the President but for the interposition of another officer who rallied a small force of regular troops and combined them with the National Guards and people for the defense of the government. The liberal army was being beaten at all points, so well had the measures of the opposite side been matured, and when Gens. Parrodi and Degollado, beaten at Salamanca, fell back upon Guadalajara, Juarez with his cabinet retired to Colima. Parrodi was made General in Chief and Minister of War, but Guadalajara was forced to capitulate to the reactionaries. Degollado was now made General in

Chief and War Minister, and Juarez reached Vera Cruz through Manzanillo, Panama and Havana, almost the whole interior of the country being held by his enemies.

7. — The condition of Mexico was desperate, but President Juarez maintained his courage, and in June, 1859, in the face of apparently insuperable difficulties he published his plans of reform. The liberal party, taking fresh heart from this pronunciamiento, alarmed the conservatives and reactionaries into inviting European intervention, promising that with the assistance of England, France and Spain, there should be efficient measures of reform based upon conservative principles which could not fail to endure. The General in Chief, Degollado, was caught by these specious promises, and gave in his adhesion to the scheme, but the army repudiated him and his procedure at once. Juarez saw the danger of interference from without, and resolutely opposed the proposition. His mode of action was to allow the people to elect a new Congress and President, and so, by the only legitimate means, settle their own affairs. The battle of Calpulalpam near Mexico, fought and won by the liberals on the 22d of December, 1860, made Juarez master of the capital for the first time since his accession nearly two years before. Gen. Miramon narrowly escaped capture in Mexico the night before the liberals entered.

8. — The first care of the Provisional President, after his arrival in the city of Mexico, was to reestablish his government, and to afford the people an opportunity to elect a new congress and official staff. The election in March established Juarez as President of the Republic, but there were fifty-one members of congress who called upon him to resign in favor of Gonzales Ortega in May. Juarez was supported in his refusal by nearly the whole press of the country, the state legislatures, and the governors of provinces. The impoverished condition of the country, almost utterly bereft of commerce and of profitable industries for more

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than two years, rendered extreme measures necessary, and, in July, 1861, Congress, upon the recommendation of Juarez, was obliged to suspend payment of all public obligations for two years. This desperate alternative, only to be defended in the presence of insolvency, and as a remedial measure, afforded a pretext for the tripartite alliance between England, France and Spain, inasmuch as foreign obligations were suspended as well as domestic, and in the December following a force, sent by the three nations, landed at Vera Cruz.

9. — The combination and succession of disasters might have broken down even a courageous man, but Juarez was full of faith, and the country, although weakened by forty years of civil war, did not succumb. France was very soon left alone in the enterprise, as England and Spain withdrew, and for a long time the states were able to maintain the contest with the power then supposed to be the greatest military nation in the world. The first attempt upon Puebla, in May, 1862, was repulsed with great loss to the French, and the city was not taken until the following May. The attempt might even then have been unsuccessful but for the traitorous aid given to foreign arms by native sympathizers, who hoped, by means of European intervention, to secure a fresh lease of power for themselves. The French entered Mexico in June, 1863, and Juarez retired to San Luis Potosi.

10. — Many who had stood firmly against the invaders, until the capital was carried, now ceased their opposition, and Juarez found it necessary to proceed to Saltillo. Ascertaining that the Governor of Nuevo Leon and Coahuila had gone over to the French interest, the President deposed him, and calling the people to his assistance, Juarez compelled the traitor to fly to the capital. It was not possible to organize a force sufficiently strong to cope with the invaders in the field, and in consequence, the President fell back upon Chihuahua when Gen. Quiroga advanced. The forces

that were brought into the field under Gens. Ortega and Patoni were poorly armed and worse commanded. Advantages gained by the energy of Negrete, Minister of War and General in Chief, at Saltillo, Monterey and Parras, in the spring of 1865, were followed by a repulse at Matamoros and aggressive action on the part of the French, before whom Juarez retired to Pass de Norte, the very frontier of the Republic.

11.—Gen. Ortega claimed that the term for which Juarez had been elected had now expired, and, therefore, the office of President devolved upon him as the Chief Justice of Mexico. Constitutionally the demand may have been sound, but as a question of policy, there was nothing to recommend the proposition, and Juarez, in the interest of the people, held on to his painful and profitless distinction, until there could be an election held to determine who should be his successor. Numerous military chiefs in different parts of the country kept up a struggle, as well as could be done under the circumstances, against the Archduke Emperor Maximilian, and his French allies, until the civil war in the United States having come to an end, the Government demanded from France the recall of French troops from Mexico, and the Emperor Louis Napoleon had to comply with the emphatic request.

12.—Juarez penetrated to Zacatecas in January, 1867, when the French troops were ordered home, but Miramon, who caused all the movements of the President to be closely watched, came very near making him a prisoner. Escobedo swooped down upon Miramon in his turn, and in several engagements defeated the enemy, more especially at San Jacinto, where a complete rout resulted. It began to be seen that Maximilian could not sustain himself upon the throne after the withdrawal of French bayonets, but the capture of the unfortunate Prince at Queretaro, in May, 1867, was a more sudden ending of his reign than had been looked for. Juarez was at San Luis Potosi when that capture was made, and he proceeded to the capi-

under Gens. Ortega and worse commanded of Negrete, Minister Altamirano, Monterey and were followed by a reaction on the part of the army retired to Pass de la Piedad.

At the term for which he was elected, expired, and, threatened upon him as the price of the demand for the question of policy, the proposition, and the people, held on to his position, until there could be no one who should be his successor in different parts of the country as well as could be against the Archduke Maximilian, until the end of the French empire came to an end, and France the recall of the Emperor Louis Napoleon, an emphatic request.

Maximilian, in January, 1867, returned home, but the movements of the President were very near making a revolution down upon Miramonte, which was defeated in Jacinto, where a man to be seen that he had upon the throne of the empire, but the capture of Queretaro, in May, 1867, his reign than had in Luis Potosi when he succeeded to the capital

once more as President. The prisoners, Maximilian, Mejia and Miramon, were tried by court martial and condemned to be shot. The trial was protracted and the best efforts of very able counsel were exhausted to gain time, when no other purpose could be served, but the executions took place on the 19th of June, 1867. The United States government was invited to use its influence in favor of mercy, and innumerable appeals were made to Juarez, but the government inflexibly adhered to the sentence pronounced by the court, as the price of the misery inflicted upon the Republic.

13. — There was a general election held as soon as the condition of the country would permit after the return of the government to the capital, and at the meeting of Congress in August, 1867, Juarez was declared reelected to the presidency. The task thus cast upon him was arduous in the extreme, and would have been impossible but for the disunion among the several military chiefs, each of whom hated his rival more than he envied the President. Many insurrections occurred, but they were all put down in succession, and Juarez pursued his task of consolidation inflexibly, without turning aside because of flattery or frowns. He was one of the best presidents, perhaps it would be more exact, to say that he was the most faithful president that ever served that Republic, and the conduct of the people showed that they could appreciate his devotion.

14. — Once more a candidate for the office of President, in 1871, he received a plurality of votes, but it was necessary for Congress to elect him, and his services were continued until the hour of his death, which occurred July 18, 1872. The military chiefs, Trevino and Dias, headed a formidable insurrection against a continuance of his power immediately after his election by Congress, but the movement was subdued in the main before the stroke of apoplexy carried him off very suddenly, leaving the stage clear for

his rivals. Gen. Rocha, on the side of Juarez, won a great victory over the insurgents at Zacatecas on the 2d of March, and was pursuing the task of pacification when Juarez died, but the Northern Provinces were still agitated by the hopes and fears of the rebels. The President was beyond all question a great man, and his rule was not sullied by low and selfish aims. His name was very familiar among readers in the United States shortly before his death, in consequence of his association with Mr. Seward at the time of his progress through Mexico, and the support given by our government to the popular cause in procuring the removal of French troops allowed the only chance of success to Juarez and his oppressed countrymen. The principal traits of the Indian character were developed in the ruler who persisted with unflinching determination through all the vicissitudes of his career to work and wait for the fruition of his hopes. Circumstances aided him at the last, but he was himself sufficient in common affairs to uphold his country and direct its course toward prosperity. His hatred of foreign domination and his devotion to the democratic principle marked every step of his life, and won for him a high place in the esteem of the lower class of society in Mexico.

VII. THE LAW OF REFORM.

Under President Lerdo. 1872-1876.

1. — Sebastian Lerdo de Tejado, who succeeded to the Presidency of the Republic on the sudden death of his predecessor, on the 18th of July, 1872, is of purely Spanish descent, but was born in Vera Cruz in the year 1825, consequently he is now just fifty-one years of age. Intended for the priesthood, he commenced a collegiate course at Puebla, but soon afterwards abandoning that project, he devoted his energies to the law, in which pursuit he attained eminence, having been elected one of the Justices of the Supreme Court in 1855. His brother Miguel was one of

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the cabinet of President Comonfort, and as his Minis-
ter of Finance, became distinguished for his vigorous
policy towards the church. The reactionary tenden-
cies of the priesthood, operating upon the army,
caused the overthrow of Comonfort, but not before
the antiprivileged party had been moderately well
organized. Sebastian lent efficient aid to his brother
Miguel in his cabinet duties, and was himself called to
the cabinet as Minister of Foreign Affairs, in 1859,
seven months before Comonfort's retirement. The
downfall of the President left Lerdo at liberty to
attend to his own affairs, and his legal practice in-
creased to a great extent during the term of little
more than three years of reactionary control.

2.—The advent of a liberal government in 1861
was the signal for such men as Lerdo to come from
their retirement, and Sebastian was elected to Con-
gress in that year and the following, being thrice
elected to the Presidency of Congress, an office which
can only be held for one month at a time. This was
his position in May, 1863, when the French invaders,
having captured Puebla and approached the capital,
compelled Juarez to retire to San Luis Potosi. A
great many of the prominent men now abandoned the
national cause, but Lerdo followed its fortunes, with a
constancy even equal to that of Juarez, never permit-
ting himself to doubt of its ultimate success. In the
absence of men who had been ambitious to serve the
people in more prosperous times, Sebastian Lerdo,
marked by especial fitness, was invited by Juarez to
assume the duties of Minister of Justice, to which
only a few days later were added those of the Minis-
ter of Foreign Affairs, with which he had become
familiar during his identification with the Comonfort
administration. The responsibilities thus accepted in-
volved considerable labor, and brought Lerdo into the
forefront of affairs as the representative of the popu-
lar cause most looked to by the nation, next to the
President himself. His efforts to unsettle the govern-

ment of the Emperor Maximilian were continuous, and his representations to the government of the United States eventually produced their proper effect, as soon as the struggling administration of Abraham Lincoln could give efficient attention to the encroachments of France. Until that time arrived, there was little that could be done beyond maintaining confidence in the popular cause.

3.—When Maximilian, supported by Louis Napoleon, was in the heyday of his success, and confident that the onths of his European patron would be fulfilled, there was no resource for the national government but to retire slowly from point to point and wait for the turn of the tide, while military leaders maintained a desultory war in the heart of the nation, by way of continuous protestation against the tyranny upheld by foreign troops. Sebastian Lerdo continued in the exercise of his offices in the successive seats of government at Monterey, Saltillo, Durango, Chihuahua, and at Paso del Norte, although there was little glory and less emolument connected with his official career at that epoch. The confidence of the Minister in the eventual triumph of the popular party was not a blind faith, as he had become well versed in the causes that were operating to prevent the intervention of the United States, in the manner subsequently realized; and he had not failed to forecast the results which became patent to the world. When, after three years of severe trial, the forces of the enemy were about to be withdrawn from Mexican soil, leaving Maximilian to reap the fruits of his own policy, the advances of the Juarez administration to Chihuahua, Zacatecas and San Luis Potosi, were the natural outcome of the foreign policy which had been steadfastly worked for by the President and his vigorous and devoted Minister.

4.—The sudden overthrow of Maximilian's projects were more surprising to that monarch than to his persistent allies, as almost to the last moment the Emperor

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ed by Louis Napo-cess, and confident ron would be ful-e national govern-t to point and wait tary leaders main-of the nation, by ainst the tyranny n Lerdo continued successive seats of Durango, Chihua-gh there was little d with his official e of the Minister ular party was not well versed in the at the intervention subsequently real-ecast the results When, after three the enemy were ican soil, leaving s own policy, the on to Chihuahua, e the natural out-d been steadfastly vigorous and de-

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believed that he had acquired power among the people. Lerdo fully concurred with Juarez in the conclusion that the sentence arrived at by the Court Martial must be executed against the Emperor and his two officers, Mejia and Miramon, as otherwise they might have served at any time as rallying points for the reactionaries whose policy had cost the country so many years of suffering and poverty. There were no means spared to induce the Cabinet and the President to relent, and among all the influences exerted, the representations mercifully offered from Washington were most potent; but the ends of justice, under the circumstances, demanded death, and the men upon whose fiat the matter hinged were not induced to waver for one second. The death of Maximilian was a reproach to the Emperor of France, but it was not in any sense a wrong on the part of the national party in Mexico and their government. Lerdo fully sustained the decision of Juarez to continue in office, in spite of the representations of Gen. Ortega, until the public could determine who should be his successor.

5.—When the general election was ordered in 1867, upon the return of the national government to the capital, the distinguished merits of Lerdo were recognized by his being chosen President of the Supreme Court of Justice, an office which carries with it the vice presidency of the Republic, and in connection with the functions thus assumed, he carried on the duties of the ministry for foreign affairs in which he had become the greatest adept in Mexico. Many of the proposals that were made and executed for the rehabilitation of the national credit and resources were popularly credited to the Vice President, between whom and his Chief a good understanding, based upon mutual respect, continued to subsist. Naturally enough, every reform made an enemy, but most of the reactionaries were already as bitter as in fact they could be, long before the Juarez government enjoyed an opportunity to carry their beneficent schemes into

operation, and in any case Lerdo was not deterred from the execution of his duty by any fear of personal consequences. In view of the probability of his becoming a candidate for the presidency in 1871, Lerdo returned from the Cabinet in January of that year, but still continued in the execution of his judicial duties, and next to Juarez the Vice President received the largest number of votes polled in July; but Congress, using the prerogative that devolved upon it when neither of the candidates polled an absolute majority, cast its ballot in favor of President Juarez.

6. — The sudden death of Juarez on the 18th of July, 1872, called Lerdo to the presidential chair by virtue of his office as Vice President of the Republic, and in the election that took place in October, 1872, he was chosen by the people for four terms, so that his term will cease in December of the Centennial year, 1876. His course in office has been marked by great ability and high tone, and he may be ranked in the Castelar school of Spanish statesmen. The reactionary or church party has disturbed him as much as the circumstances of the time would permit, but he has met all their machinations with an inflexible determination, rigidly suppressing every attempt at revolution, yet meeting every citizen of whatever grade with consummate urbanity, such as can hardly fail to disarm the better disposed. The policy of reform initiated by Juarez has been steadily adhered to and carried out with great sagacity. The abuses incidental to a long continuance of military rule and priestly domination have been reduced firmly and without rashness, so that the people are being gradually educated up to the point at which they will be able to realize the best fruits of republican institutions.

7. — Schools and the liberty of the press, which are especially the enemies of caste and of class legislation, have, within the few years that have elapsed since the death of Maximilian, been allowed free scope as educating influences for the mass of the community; and

was not deterred by any fear of personal probability of his beney in 1871, Lerdo uary of that year, ion of his judicial President received in July; but Con- devolved upon it polled an absolute President Juarez. rez on the 18th of residential chair by nt of the Republic, in October, 1872, ar terms, so that his e Centennial year, n marked by great y be ranked in the en. The reaction- him as much as the permit, but he has inflexible determi- mpt at revolution, ver grade with con- rdly fail to disarm reform initiated by to and carried out incidental to a long priestly domination out rashness, so that ducated up to the to realize the best

the press, which are of class legislation, e elapsed since the free scope as edu- e community; and

the bigotry which for centuries has made Mexico as a Spanish Colony, and as an independent Republic, the special inheritance of the Catholic Apostolic Church, is slowly receding under more enlightened rule. Commerce and manufactures, the mainstays of a nation, are becoming acclimated on the soil too long devoted only to civil strife; but it will necessarily be a painful and prolonged process, that can raise a people once so degraded and oppressed, to the same level with their neighbors, who have never bowed the knee to Baal, nor been cursed with the terrible burdens of Spanish tyranny and misgovernment. The statement seems to be in the nature of a platitude, and yet it is one of the most deplorable facts of this age, that the main cause of the decadence of Mexico, from the civilization which was being accomplished by the unassisted Indian Race in the sixteenth century must be found in the presence and influence of European civilization upon this continent, as represented by the church, the military and the courtiers of Spain.

8.—The party of reaction cannot wait for the end of the term of office devolving upon Lerdo, and the last year of his administration has been marked by several insurrections, but up to the date of this writing, he has been equal to every emergency, and there is good reason to believe that he will be as popular in the end as in the beginning.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

1.—Central America is that narrow strip of land which united North and South America, but which may be regarded as a division of North America. It lies between the parallels of about 7° and 18° north latitude. It is about eight hundred miles long, with a breadth varying from twenty to four hundred miles. It is bounded on the north by Mexico, on the east by the Caribbean Sea, on the south by New Granada, and

on the west by the Pacific Ocean. Its area is about 188,370 square miles.

2.—The face of the country is very mountainous, and is intersected by numerous streams of considerable size, but quite short from the narrowness of the country; all the larger streams flow into the Atlantic. Among these the Usumasinta is the largest, and the San Juan, which forms the outlet of Lake Nicaragua, is next in size. Among the bays and gulfs the most important are the Gulf of Honduras on the east coast, the Bay of Panama, the Gulf of Dulce, Caronada Bay, Gulf of Nicoga and the Gulf of Fonseca on the Pacific coast. Aside from Lake Nicaragua, which has an area of 8,400 square miles, there are in Central America Lakes Managua, Ilopongo, Amatitlan, and the Yojoa.

3.—In Central America there are two seasons in the year, the wet season and the dry season. In the former the sun is always vertical and is seldom seen, the skies being filled with clouds and falling rain; while in the latter, the temperature does not rise so high, but hot and dry weather prevails, with a clear and healthy atmosphere.

4.—The political divisions of Central America are as follows: Guatemala, Honduras, British Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica.

THE REPUBLIC OF GUATEMALA.

1524-1876.

1.—The earliest settlement of this region is due to the Spaniards, who founded a colony at Old Guatemala in 1524. This was for a long time the capital, but has recently been superseded by a new town about thirty miles distant. Frequent calamities from earthquakes and eruptions from neighboring volcanoes were continuous sources of trouble to the colonists, and have on many occasions almost depopulated the city. The site is beautiful although dangerous, and the special fitness of the spot for the production of the

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cochineal insect has led to its being rebuilt and again occupied after every calamity. The republic is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, by Mexico, by the Caribbean Sea, by Honduras and San Salvador, having an area of 44,800 square miles, and a population of nearly 2,000,000 persons, of whom only about 25,000 are white, the rest being Indians and Mestizoes, the Indian races largely predominating. The Andes traverse the republic throughout the whole extent, and the country is high and varied in surface as a consequence of that fact.

2.— There are many active volcanoes in the main range of mountains on the Pacific coast, including Sapotitlan and Atitlan, the one 12,050 and the other 12,500 feet high. The spurs of the main range striking towards the Caribbean Sea from plateaus and valleys of considerable extent and varying fertility. The climate varies with the elevation, but as a whole, may be pronounced healthful and the soil fertile. The government of the republic is vested in the hands of a few leading families, and the President, nominated among themselves, holds office for four years. Liberty of the press is established, and since 1872 the Jesuits have been excluded, but the Roman Catholic religion is established, and no other form of worship is tolerated. Guatemala may be fairly said to have no history, and few events, with the exception of earthquakes, have ever moved the people. The cochineal insect is the main dependence of the people, and the Mexicans appear to have pursued this branch of industry long before the country was known to Europeans. The pursuit requires little or no capital, and a wonderful endowment of patience, which perhaps accounts for the long continued rule of the dominant oligarchy in the republic. There are other products such as maize, wheat, and rice of fine quality, as also cotton, vanilla, sugar and tobacco.

3.— New Guatemala and the Capital of the republic is a well built town covering an extensive area, as

the houses are never more than one story in height, as a precaution natural enough, considering the frequent recurrence of earthquakes. Many of these low buildings of stone are very handsome and even luxurious. The elevation from the sea is 4,961 feet, and the city spreads its population of 40,000 over a spacious plain of unusual fertility. There are many manufactures established in the republic, the principal of which are the production of muslin of fine quality, silver ware, and such like occupations for which the raw materials are at hand. Preparing cochineal for export employs large numbers, and a very lively trade is generally carried on in the city and Republic of Guatemala.

THE REPUBLIC OF HONDURAS.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1540-1876.

1.—The first settlement of Europeans, on the site now known as Honduras, was made at Comayagua by Alonzo de Carceres, in the year 1540, and so little has the colony flourished that the entire white population of the Republic of Honduras, at the present time, hardly exceeds 14,000. The whole of the population aggregates about 400,000, of whom 6,000 are negroes, 200,000 Mestizoes, and 180,000 Indians. Comayagua is the capital of the Republic, and its population is estimated at 18,000. It was once much larger, but war and pestilence have decimated the people. The settlement was originally called Valladolid. There is a college in the city, several convents and a cathedral, but hardly any attempt to diffuse education. The religion of the state is Catholic, and every other form of worship is forbidden. The city stands on the river Humnoa, about 180 miles east of Guatemala. The area of the Republic is about 50,000 square miles, and if there were only roads and industry in the country, the raw material for immense wealth would speedily be found.

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2. — The boundaries of Honduras are the Caribbean Sea, Nicaragua, the Bay of Fonseca, San Salvador and Guatemala. The Caribbean coast is low and marshy to the east, having extensive salt water lagoons, but towards the west more rocky, with islands lying off the land, as the Bay Islands, which are attached to the government of Jamaica. The lagoons of Carthage and of Cartme are in Honduras. There are many rivers, among which the principal are the Segovia, or Cow, which is fully 350 miles long, but full of rapids, forming the boundary between Nicaragua and Honduras; the Patuca, on which vessels of light draught are navigated, into which the Guayape, famous for gold washings, empties itself; the Uloa strikes the Patuca just at its mouth, and this stream has nine feet of water on the bar, being navigable for seventy miles, until it is joined by the Santiago. There are also many ports, at once commodious and safe, as, for instance, at Omoa, Trujillo and Puerto Cortes. The Pacific coast is also low along the Bay of Fonseca, being, in some parts, subject to inundations; but Amalpa is a fine harbor in that region, and there are others but little inferior. The Choheteca, which flows into the Bay of Fonseca, is navigable for small vessels. Within, the country is high but considerably diversified by mountain ranges, plateaus and valleys.

3. — The Sierra Madre, entering the country from the west, forms the mountain system of Honduras, including the Espiritu, Santo and Grita, ending in the Omoa Mountains; and to the south and east the Selaque Mountains, whose highest peak is 10,000 feet. The Puca, Santa Barbara, Chili and Sulaco Mountains are parts of the same system. These elevations afford a refuge from the hot and unhealthy weather of the low coast, but the climate seems capricious. The hottest season comes in April, May and June. The rainy season, usually introduced with thunder storms, falls in November, December and January. The soil is fertile and vegetation exuberant in the low lands and

valleys. On the plateaus, the fruits and plants of more temperate climes succeed well. Sugar cane is indigenous, and excellent tobacco, coffee and cotton can be produced, but the inhabitants do not use their advantages. The cochineal insect abounds; but little care is taken to obtain the desirable dye stuff. The timber of those forests attracted ships to the Bay of Honduras three centuries ago, to fetch mahogany, logwood, gums and precious drugs, but there is hardly any commensurate enterprise in that direction now. Gold, silver, copper, coal, and very beautiful marble are found in many parts, and in vast quantities, but few mines or quarries are, or will be, worked by the people who now inhabit Honduras.

4. — The country is rich in every resource except the mainstay of a nation, an industrious, intellectual and enterprising people. Society is unsettled; there is no capital, no energy, and no facility for commerce. Cattle raising is almost the only pursuit that is systematically followed, and even that cannot be said to be prosecuted advantageously. The Roman Catholic religion governs the country, and there is hardly any education. The President is chosen for four years, and legislative power is vested in two chambers, but republican institutions are ill suited to a people lacking in energy and knowledge. Foreign loans were contracted prior to 1872, to construct an inter-oceanic railroad, and the national debt exceeds \$30,000,000; but the finances of the country are in very great confusion, and the government hardly calculates on meeting its obligations. With all the opportunities for realizing wealth by which the people are surrounded, the annual exports seldom exceed \$1,250,000, including bullion, timber, cattle, indigo, hides and tobacco, and so few and rude are the industries prosecuted in the country, that cotton and silk fabrics are imported from England, and the United States have established a complete monopoly in the supply of cutlery and machinery of all kinds. In the hands of enterprising people, Hon-

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BRITISH HONDURAS.

1. — This country is more generally known as Ba-
lize, having been so named by the Spaniards because
the Bay of Honduras was the favorite resort of a
Buccaneer named Wallace. This is the only British
colony in Central America, and it is situated on the
Bay of Honduras in the peninsula of Yucatan. The
town of Balize is the capital and chief port, being a
considerable depot of British goods intended for the
trade in Central America. The area of British Hon-
duras is about 13,500 square miles, and its popula-
tion about 30,000. The colony has no debt, and its
administration is vested in an official staff, but a
large business is effected annually in fustic, mahog-
any, dye stuffs and other products. The town of Ba-
lize stands at the mouth of the river of the same
name, and its population exceeds six thousand per-
sons, mainly engaged in mercantile pursuits. There is
a fine iron market house in the town, and there are
several chapels, as every form of religion is free in the
settlement. There is also a court house, and a very
neat hospital well cared for. The people are compara-
tively shut off from civilization, but a lively interest
is manifested in all national questions at a distance,
and the hygienic regulations of the settlement are such
as to make the best of somewhat untoward circum-
stances.

THE REPUBLIC OF COSTA RICA.

1502-1876.

1. — COSTA RICA, signifying "Rich Coast," was
one of the States composing the Confederation of Cen-
tral America, from which she seceded in 1840, and the
present population is estimated at 170,000. This coast
was visited, in 1502, by Christopher Columbus when
on his fourth voyage, after he had been acquitted by

the court of the shameful charges preferred by Francisco de Bobadilla in the West Indies. This voyage ended in shipwreck, but, after many hardships, the discoverer returned to Spain in 1504, and died two years later, at the age of seventy, almost broken in spirit by the ingratitude of the country and king that he had benefited so largely. The authenticity of the discoveries by Columbus have been questioned in favor of certain Icelandic voyagers, but there seems to be little likelihood that an enterprising and hardy people, seeking homes for an increasing population, would have neglected this continent for many centuries after its actual exploration, if the fact had really been comprehended.

2. — The inhabitants of the coast and his own crew opposed Columbus so vexatiously that he was compelled to abandon all ideas of colonization, and his wreck terminated his opportunity. The next visit occurred in 1523, when Cortez sent Pedro Alvarado to conquer Central America, and, within two years, the natives had all been subdued to a nominal recognition of the authority of Spain. There was no further dream of independence, although there were many partial insurrections, until in 1823, after a lapse of three centuries from Alvarado's visit, the colonies were confederated into the Republic of Central America. Like most confederations of Spanish colonies, the attempt ended unsatisfactorily, and, after 1833, there was a gradual breaking up of the republic into the separate States of Guatemala, Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. There have been several efforts to reconstitute the larger republic, but no success has been achieved, and with the present inhabitants none will be possible.

3. — Costa Rica is the most southern State of Central America, and is bounded by Nicaragua, the Caribbean Sea, Panama, and the Pacific Ocean. The area comprises about 21,495 square miles, and is mountainous, the whole territory being traversed by a continua-

preferred by Francis. This voyage was full of hardships, the ship was wrecked in 1604, and died two years almost broken in the country and king that questioned the authenticity of the fact that there seems to be a rising and hardy increasing population, but for many centuries the fact had really

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ern State of Central America, the Caribbean Ocean. The area is mountainous and is mountained by a continuous

tion of the Cordilleras, containing several active and many distinct volcanoes. The highest peak is Mount Irazu, or Cartago, 11,480 feet above the sea. Earthquakes are common in Costa Rica. Rains prevail from April to October, the remainder of the year being comparatively dry. The soil of the table lands is easily worked and very fertile.

4.—The name of the coast, Costa Rica, is due to the mines of the precious metals, which have been opened here, and which had evidently been worked by the Indians before the advent of the Spaniards made their existence a source of oppression. The main dependence of Costa Rica is upon the cultivation of coffee, maize, tobacco and sugar. The dye woods obtainable in the forests, which are very extensive, supply a shipment which is always in demand. Mahogany, cedar and other valuable woods spread over a large area of the country, and will hereafter become a source of enormous wealth, but every industry is neglected in the present stage of development. The capital of Costa Rica is San Jose, a city of 25,000 inhabitants, besides which Cartago has 10,000, being second in importance. Cartago was once the capital, being probably the oldest city in Central America, and in 1823, there were 37,000 inhabitants, but in 1841, there was a terrific earthquake which destroyed seven churches and 2,900 houses. Mount Cartago is near the city, and San Jose about twenty miles west. Nominally, Costa Rica is a republic, having been so named in 1823, and the president is chosen every three years, but in all the essentials of Republican government the country is entirely wanting. President Guardia rules, the expenditure is about \$1,590,000, and the debt about as much. There is a standing army of 1,000 men, and a commercial navy of 45 vessels, with a burthen of about 5,000 tons. The imports and exports are nearly equal, ranging near \$2,000,000 annually, being partly made up of rice, caoutchouc, sarsaparilla, rubber, hides, gold and cotton.

THE REPUBLIC OF NICARAGUA.

1502-1876.

1. — Nicaragua has the honor to have been discovered by the great Genoese navigator in 1502, but the country was not beneficially occupied by Spain, until twenty-one years later, when the settlement of Leon was commenced by Francisco Fernandez de Cordova, on the western border of Lake Managua, in Imbita. At that time the native city of Subtiaba is said to have had 100,000 inhabitants, a fact which, even if only approximating to the truth, reveals a degree of civilization to which Spain is still a stranger. The town of Subtiaba is now quite a small suburb, inhabited by descendants of the Indian possessors of the days of Fernandez, but completely degenerated by contact with a semi-military and priest ridden form of civilization. Nicaragua has an area of 58,200 square miles, and an estimated population of 400,000.

2. — Leon, the principal city, has a population of 25,000 persons, composed of Creoles and Mestizoes of various grades. The city was removed from the site originally selected in the year 1610, to the place now occupied on a well watered and fertile plain 200 feet above the sea. The city is now well watered, and is divided into six cantons, known as Sagrario, San Felipe, San Juan, Calvario, Zaragoza and Laborio of San Sebastian. The city is only divided by a street from the Indian town of Subtiaba. Want of water fit for use was one of the embarrassments suffered near the lake. This is the best and handsomest city in Nicaragua, the other principal places being Granada, with 12,000 inhabitants and Realejo with 5,000. The buildings are low, and therefore defective in style; more especially this is noticeable in the Cathedral, but the tendency to earthquakes overcomes art. This building was commenced in 1746, and finished in 1774. The streets in the center of the city are paved and lighted, and there are twelve churches besides the

NICARAGUA.

to have been discovered in 1502, but the place was occupied by Spain, until the settlement of Leon by Hernandez de Cordova, in Managua, in Imbiba. Subtiaba is said to be a fact which, even if it reveals a degree of civilization to a stranger. The small suburb, inhabited by the possessors of the land, is largely degenerated by the priest ridden form of the area of 58,200 square miles of 400,000.

There is a population of 25,000, and Mestizoes of the place removed from the site of 10, to the place now a fertile plain 200 feet above the sea level, well watered, and is divided by a street into Sagrario, San Felipe, and Laborio of San Subtiaba. Want of water for the settlements suffered near the handsomest city in the place being Granada, and Realejo with 5,000. The architecture is defective in style; in the Cathedral, but it overcomes art. This city was founded and finished in 1774. The city are paved and the churches besides the

Cathedral. The city also contains two Episcopal palaces, a University, the buildings formerly used by the Spanish government, several monasteries, some of which have been turned to better account as hospitals and schools for the study of surgery and medicine, and other buildings, many of which are distinguished by peculiar beauty.

3. — Leon is a fair representative of Nicaragua generally, having few manufactures and no industry, but there is a languishing trade carried on through the port of Corinto, which is not far distant. The general facts embodied in the sketch of Costa Rica as to changes in the form of government, apply to this State also, and recapitulation would therefore be a needless repetition, consequently we may use our space to better purpose by describing other features of greater interest. The surroundings of Leon are beautiful, and mineral springs of great value are found at the foot of the Sierra de los Marrabios. The Indian population of Subtiaba is comparatively industrious, but the number has not been ascertained.

4. — Granada was founded on the shores of Lake Nicaragua, toward the northwest, about the same date as the settlement was made at Leon, and the place was very thriving for a Spanish settlement, until the civil wars of 1854-'55 destroyed its glory, and the recuperative power of the people is so small that the city is still mostly in ruins. The same story substantially, might be told of Realejo, and the country generally does not progress. President Quadra was chosen for four years, and is now in office. The annual expenditure is \$700,000; the national debt is \$1,250,000; there is an army of 800 men on the peace establishment, and a commercial navy of eighty vessels, whose united burthen is less than 9,000 tons. The imports of the country reach about \$1,000,000 annually, and the exports about \$800,000. The shipments consist of cocoa, cochineal, indigo, coffee, sugar, tobacco, rice, caoutchouc, rubber, sarsaparilla, dye woods, mahogany, cedar, hides, gold, silver and cotton.

THE REPUBLIC OF SAN SALVADOR.

1809-1876.

1. — The early visit of Columbus and the settlement, by expeditions dispatched for the purpose by Cortez, is a twice told tale, and so is the story of the confederation known as the Republic of Central America, and its disintegration to form the several small republics already described. There are few features of special interest in connection with the development of San Salvador. Its area is the smallest of all the States, being only 7,800 square miles, and its population is estimated at 600,000 souls, composed of Creoles and Mestizoes, added to the descendants of the original Indian stock. There are but few Creoles in San Salvador who are not, in some degree Indian, and they generally combine the vices of each parent race. The principal city is San Salvador, the capital, which is also the principal seaport of the republic, about two-thirds of the exports of the country passing through the hands of its merchants. The population of San Salvador city is estimated at 30,000, Acajutla is variously estimated at from 4,000 to 5,000, and Union has about 3,000 people.

2. — Acajutla was for a long time under the rule of Spain, the principal seaport on the western coast between Acapulco and Realejo, but the city is now fallen into disrepair, and although one third of the exports of the country find their outlet at this point, the main features visible are the residence of the Port Captain, a ruinous warehouse, once capable of sheltering a vast quantity of goods, and a few sheds and huts hardly worthy of being noticed but for the wretchedness which they disclose. Peruvian balsam is one of the chief items exported from Acajutla, and about 20,000 pounds are annually shipped; otherwise the exports are such as have been named in describing the resources of Nicaragua. The annual expenditure of the Republic is about \$770,000, the debt \$1,000,000,

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EMPIRE OF BRAZIL.

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the army 1,000 strong, the mercantile navy 64 ships, with an aggregate burthen of 4,000 tons. The executive power of the Republic is wielded by President Gonzales, who strives to embody in himself all the powers which should be intelligently exercised by all the citizens of a Republic.

THE

COUNTRIES OF SOUTH AMERICA.

SOUTH AMERICA.

EXTENT. — South America is a vast tract of land of a triangular shape. It extends from north latitude 12° 30' to Cape Horn, in latitude 55° 59' south. It is 4,800 miles long, and its greatest breadth is 3,300 miles. Its area is estimated at 6,958,600 square miles. About three-fourths lie within the temperate zone. Its coast lines have but few indentations, except near the southern extremity. The political divisions are as follows: Brazil, Argentine Republic, Bolivia, United States of Colombia, Ecuador, Chili, Guiana, Uruguay, Venezuela, Paraguay, Peru, Patagonia and Falkland Islands.

THE EMPIRE OF BRAZIL.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1. — On the third of May, 1500, Vincente Yanez Pinçon, one of the companions of Columbus, discovered the country now known as Brazil, which was taken possession of subsequently by Pedro Alvarez Cabral. Many Portuguese settlements were made at

different points, although the Spaniards, English and Dutch merchants and mariners were very jealous of such operations, and repeatedly attacked the little colonies. The Indians were for the most part peaceable, and in some degree civilized, but not to such an extent as was found in Mexico. There were some few disturbances with the natives at first, in consequence of the cupidity and tyranny of the settlers, but on the whole it may be said that the disturbing causes of the early years of Brazilian colonization resulted from the dreaded visits of the ships of war of the different nations in Europe, which depended upon buccaneering as their main pursuit upon the seas. Some of the settlements were actually destroyed by avaricious men who could wring gold from the colonists as the price of immunity from their assaults. The natives were reduced in part to a condition of slavery, which continued until the year 1755, when a decree was passed in Portugal, specially exempting the Indian race from slavery, reserving that fate for negroes only.

2. — The number of uncivilized Indians now in the Empire of Brazil is estimated at 200,000, but they have been forced back into the interior by the continuous aggression of the white population, and with the exception of those tribes that occupy the north and the extreme west of the territory, the natives generally acquiesce in their gradual dispossession. The tribes excepted are savage and warlike, and they steadily resist the advance of the Portuguese. The Indian tribes are very numerous, and their dialects differ very considerably, but there seems to be a probability that their ancestors all spoke only one language. Negroes have been largely introduced into Brazil, and in consequence there are districts from which the native races are now almost entirely excluded. The southern parts of Brazil have become the negro abiding places, and in the north the Indians predominate; but there are mixed races which are distinguished by particular names. The principal races

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of Indians are the Tupi, Puri, Guarycurnes, Tapin-
ambas, Taperivas, and the Botacudoes. Indians that
have settled are known as Caboclos, the mixed race
between whites and Indians are called Mamelucos,
and those between Indians and Negroes are known as
Cafuzoes.

3. — The white settlers are almost entirely descend-
ants from the Portuguese founders of the colonies, vary-
ing in degrees and kinds of culture according to po-
sition, as for instance, in Pernambuco, the settler is a
slave holding Grandee, in his way, with many of the
vices peculiar to that condition, and on the other hand,
those in the region of the Rio Grande do Sul, are pas-
toral in their pursuits, and comparatively simple in
their habits. The residents in Minas Geraes have the
highest intellectual position, and those in the province
of Bahia are most prosperous in manufactures and in
other industries requiring energy and aptitude. The
fertility of the lowlands in this province has offered a
premium to those engaged in agricultural pursuits, so
that the cultivation of coffee, sugar, cotton, tobacco,
rice and manioc, with the several manufactures arising
therefrom, have afforded sufficient inducements to re-
tain laborers, notwithstanding the attractions to mine
for gold and seek diamonds in many parts of this rich
country. The population of Bahia alone is estimated
at 1,450,000. The city of Bahia has a population of
120,000, and is very beautifully situated, with a busy
and enterprising population, but the mercantile affairs
of the port are largely controlled by the English. This
city was at one time the capital of Brazil, and it con-
tains fine libraries and many beautiful buildings.

4. The province of Espirito Santo or the Holy
Spirit is a very extensive and fertile area, but it is to a
large extent covered with forests, and the population
hardly exceeds 65,000. of whom nearly one-fourth are
slaves. Throughout Brazil the established religion is
Roman Catholic, but there has been toleration for oth-
er forms of worship since the year 1811, and it is esti-

mated that there are now about 25,000 Protestants in the country, mostly Germans in the rural districts, and English or American in commercial cities. The government of the country is a limited monarchy, the Emperor succeeding to the throne as an inheritance, and the legislative powers being exercised by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies; the members of the Upper Chamber are chosen for life, and the members of the lower, for four years only. The dangers inseparable from a standing army are guarded against by a law bearing date 1869, which limits the peace establishment to 20,000 men. The navy is much more considerable, but there is not so much room for fear, as to the permanence of freedom from sea forces, as from those on land. Education is well provided for in most of the large towns, and in Rio Janeiro there is an excellent museum. Engineering, naval tactics, military science, law and medicine have each their special schools, and the press is comparatively free, there being over 300 newspapers published in the Empire.

5.— When Napoleon invaded Portugal in the year 1808, the King, accompanied by his court, sailed for Brazil, and soon after his arrival the ports were thrown open to all nations, besides which numerous abuses were rectified, which had the effect of greatly improving the administration of affairs in the country. When the reverses of Napoleon culminated in his retirement to Elba, Brazil was raised to the rank of a Kingdom, and John VI continued to hold his court in Brazil until the year 1820, when in consequence of a revolution, it became necessary for him to go back to Lisbon. Don Pedro, who had been installed as Regent by his father, was obliged two years after that event to proclaim the nation free and independent, his own title as Emperor taking its rise at that time, and in 1825, the home government recognized the new Empire. The first Emperor was obliged to abdicate in 1831, in consequence of wide spread dissatisfaction with his rule, but his son then under age was accepted

at 25,000 Protestants in the rural districts, and commercial cities. The government monarchy, the Emperor as an inheritance, and exercised by the Senate members of the Upper and the members of the The dangers inseparable guarded against by a law its the peace establishment is much more consideration for fear, as to the sea forces, as from those provided for in most of the there is an excellent tactics, military science, their special schools, and ce, there being over 300 Empire.

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as his successor, and a council of Regents administered the government in his name until 1840, when, the boy, having attained his fifteenth year, was declared of age by the Assembly, and crowned Emperor in 1841.

6. — The young Emperor's reign was troubled at its outset, with a servile insurrection which threatened to be of long continuance. His father had made a treaty with England in 1826 for the abolition of the slave trade, and more was hoped from that movement than was immediately found practicable, but eventually in 1866, Don Pedro II emancipated all slaves held by the government, and in 1871, the legislature made provision for the gradual extinction of slavery throughout the Empire. There was also a war with the Argentine Republic soon after he ascended the throne, but the conflict was not momentous and it did not continue long. Paraguay declared war against Brazil in 1865, and for nearly five years hostilities were vigorously conducted, the victory resting with Brazil. While the war continued, a decree was issued by the assembly opening all the great rivers of the Empire to foreign vessels, a measure which has proved very beneficial to the community by the extension of commercial facilities. In the year 1869, there were ten large steamers engaged in the trade on the Amazon and Peru, and Ecuador had smaller steamers fully engaged in their commercial transactions. There are now about six hundred miles of railroads being operated in Brazil, and still more are projected; while the electric telegraph has nearly two thousand miles of wire in full work. One railroad is owned by the government, extending from Rio Janeiro to São Francisco; the remaining lines are owned and operated by companies, and the management is as good as the average of such enterprises. The condition of the country is on the whole prosperous: the people compare very favorably with those of Mexico, as well in their general habits as in the comforts by which they are surrounded. The climate offers varieties suitable to al-

most every taste and constitution, and the populations of the twenty provinces aggregate more than ten millions inclusive of slaves.

THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1516-1876.

1. — Spain has the honor of having discovered the La Plata in 1516, when Juan Diaz de Solis took possession of the country in the name of the King, but Buenos Ayres, now the capital city of the Argentine Republic, was not founded until the year 1535, when Don Pedro de Mendoza became Governor. The Indians, for some reason, were not enamored of the settlers, and the place was twice destroyed before 1580, when it was rebuilt for the second time. The natives still continue very numerous, and to a large extent hostile to the Republic. There are three considerable groups now recognized: the Guaranis, whose rule formerly extended from the Atlantic to the Andes and from the Gulf of Mexico to the Rio de la Plata; the Quichus, whose ancestors were subject to the Incas of Peru, and who live in the region east of the Cordilleras, as far as Santiago; and last though not least, the Arancanians, whose northern limit is the Rio Salado, but who break bounds so often that they are said to hold 3,000 Argentine citizens captive, at the present time, having taken them in their several incursions.

2. — Some portions of the aboriginal tribes have become blended with the white race, and their descendants constitute the bulk of the population; but within the last twenty years immigration has been extensive; in the year 1870, there were nearly 40,000 Europeans added to the population of the republic. The dress and manners of civilization are thus beginning to predominate in the principal cities, as for instance in Buenos Ayres; but the Mestizoes and half breeds con-

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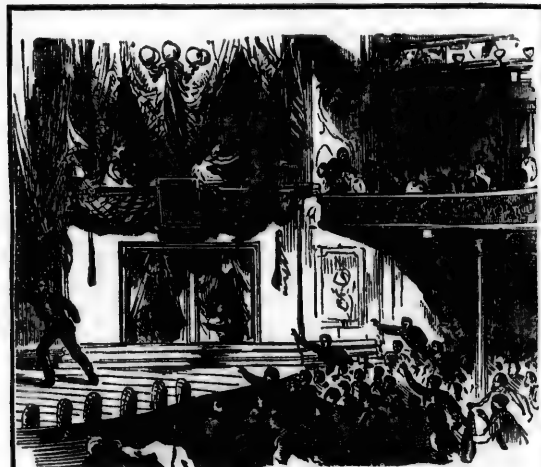
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ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.



SHERIDAN'S ARRIVAL AT CEDAR CREEK.

stitute the lower class, and their manners are rude in the extreme. They are gamblers and dissolute characters with a taste for coarse life. Their dress consists of a jacket and pantaloons of sheepskin, the latter open from the knees down, and over all this a poncho, consisting of a kind of coarse blanket with a hole in the centre through which the head of the wearer passes. The dress of the other sex is but little more refined, and it has been ascertained that one-fifth of all the children born in the country are illegitimate. Roman Catholicism is the religion that predominates, except among immigrants, and there are some monasteries, but more nunneries. Efforts are made to convert the Indians, but the change when effected is not always an improvement. Education is at a low ebb; very few persons can read and write; but under the present administration, efforts are being made to improve and increase the number of schools. There are several Universities, and more are in course of erection. There are thirty-seven newspapers in the Republic, and forty three printing establishments, sixteen of each being in Buenos Ayres, which is beyond comparison the greatest city and state in the Confederation.

3. — The Viceroy of Peru had control of the colonies on the La Plata until 1778, when they were erected into a Vice-Royalty, which included Rio de la Plata, Paraguay, Uruguay and Bolivia, with Buenos Ayres for the capital. The British held Buenos Ayres and Monte Video in 1806-7, but did not retain the possession, and a certain degree of liberalism commenced to operate in the community after that time. In 1810, the Viceroy was expelled and a governing Junta nominated, but their authority was not recognized by Cordova, Uruguay and Paraguay, and civil wars were of long continuance thereafter. The Confederation issued its own coin after 1813, and the Spanish flag was abandoned, Monte Video, the last fortress of the Spaniards having been taken. The first Dic-

tator was nominated in 1816, Gen. Pueyrredon being appointed by the representatives of the Confederation assembled at Tucuman. Spain endeavored to compel submission to its rule, but sustained severe defeats in 1817-18 and '21, the last being decisive. The leaders of the revolution were meantime quarreling among themselves for the possession of the spoil, and it was not until 1825 that a supposed strong central government was formed, which was destroyed by the malcontents almost immediately.

4. — Rivadiva, having been compelled to resign, was followed by Dorrego, who was forced upon Buenos Ayres as Governor by the Gauchos under Manuel de Rosas. Such outbreaks and profitless changes were almost continuous until Rosas, in 1826, was elected for six years. In 1835 he was offered a reelection, but declined to serve under any other terms than as Dictator of the Republic with unlimited powers. That hard condition having been conceded, he continued in office until 1852, and no Congress was assembled during seventeen years, but civil war was hardly once interrupted. Uruguay had assumed independence of the Confederation, and therefrom fresh hostilities were continually arising, and France was induced without much difficulty to take part in the quarrel. There was a brief peace from 1840 to 1845, when England and France intervened and blockaded Buenos Ayres and occupied the island of Martin Garcia in order to compel a settlement of difficulties. Some of the provinces by which he had been supported having withdrawn, Rosas was defeated in February, 1852, and compelled to find refuge in England. Vicente Lopez was then elected President, but displaced by Gen. Urquiza, who was subsequently chosen President in 1853. The independence of Paraguay was recognized, and Buenos Ayres seceded, but after much negotiation, war followed, and the seceding state reentered the Confederation in 1859, on the basis of the Union of Parana.

5. — Difficulties were not ended, as it was con-

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compelled to resign, was forced upon Buenos Aires under Manuel de Rosas. Bitless changes were made, 1828, was elected for a reelection, but on terms than as Dictatorial powers. That he continued in was assembled during was hardly once in independence of fresh hostilities were as induced without quarrel. There was when England and Buenos Ayres and in order to come of the provinces having withdrawn, 1852, and compelled Rosas. Lopez was then by Gen. Urquiza, who in 1853. The unrecognized, and Buenos negotiation, war fostered the Confederation of Parana. led, as it was con-

tended with good reason, that taxation was excessive, considering the small results obtained in the way of government. In 1861 Gen. Mitre, commanding Buenos Ayres troops, defeated the federal forces, compelled the President to resign, and was himself nominated to the office provisionally, being afterwards elected to the same position, which he occupied from 1862 to 1868. Serious outbreaks were suffered in 1866 in many provinces because of the war with Paraguay, which was unpopular, and there was at one time just ground for anxiety lest the fabric of government, poor as it was, should give place to anarchy. Both houses of Congress concurred in changing the seat of government to Rosario, but Mitre vetoed the measure, as it would have been equivalent to destroying his own position. President Sarmiento was elected in 1868, and under his rule there has been a larger share of prosperity than during any other period in the history of the Argentine Republic. There was a rebellion in 1870 in the unimportant province of Entre Rios, headed by Gen. Jordan, and it was not suppressed until 1871, after two pitched battles. The yellow fever destroyed nearly 14,000 people in Buenos Ayres in 1872, and during the same year there were three attempts at revolution, besides an invasion by the Arancanian Indians, but Sarmiento maintained his hold upon the populace and the dignity of the Republic.

6. — The prospects for the Argentine Republic will be good only when the influx of a better population, in sufficient numbers, removes from the old Spanish element the possibility of further disturbance. Wherever Spain planted a colony, the people grew up unfit to exercise the powers of self government, and incapable of submission to any other rule than a military tyranny. The opportunities for settlement are excellent, the area held and claimed by the Republic amounts to 1,000,000 square miles, and the population altogether is less than two million souls. The

pampas will sustain unnumbered millions of cattle, which with proper care could not fail to enrich a nation. The dryness of the air is one of the chief drawbacks of the climate, but if one-tenth of the energy that has been spent on civil wars had been employed on works of irrigation and water supply, many of the evils complained of would have disappeared long since. Roads are wanting entirely in many directions, and in others have fallen into lamentable disrepair. But railroads are rapidly spreading over the country, telegraph wires are operating over thousands of miles, a submarine cable connects Monte Video with Buenos Ayres, and all that is wanted to make the country successful in the highest degree is an organized colonization; on a large scale, sufficient to superinduce good order, and settled government.

THE REPUBLIC OF BOLIVIA.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1838-1876.

1.—There appears to have been a settled government among the Indians under the Incas of Cuzco for more than five centuries prior to the irruption of the Spaniards in 1538, when the territory now included in the Republic of Bolivia was taken possession of under the arms of Charles V of Spain. Sairi Tupac, the reigning Inca, did not resign his authority until 1557, when he submitted to the troops of Philip II, but the dominion of Spain was not established until 1780, when under the name Charcas this region was included in the Viceroyalty of La Plata, having the seat of government at Buenos Ayres. When Ferdinand, King of Spain, was compelled to abdicate by Napoleon in 1808, the intelligence caused revolutionary risings in Bolivia, which continued with varying fortunes until 1824, when the popular party became sufficiently established to convene a congress,

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BOLIVIA.

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declare the independence of the Republic and give it the name of Bolivia in honor of its benefactor, Gen. Bolivar, who had the honor to be chosen Dictator of Peru in 1823, President for life of Bolivia in 1825, and also President of the Republic of Colombia.

2. — Bolivia is especially rich in the precious metals, as gold is found not only in quartz reefs in the mountains, but in the river beds in very considerable quantities, where it has been deposited in the natural processes of disintegration during many centuries, and probably during thousands of years. The whole country appears to be auriferous, and to have in addition vast coal deposits, copper, tin, mercury, lead, iron and salt, in large quantities enough to secure present and future wealth for a great nation. The vegetal wealth of the soil and climate is practically unlimited either as to quantity or range of productions. The aboriginal population consists of Chiriquanos, Chiquitos and Majos, and there are very few negroes in Bolivia. Half-breeds are very numerous, and education can hardly be said to have been organized, although the Catholic Church has complete ascendancy over the people, and the heads of that body, presiding over the universities and engaged in the propagation of their religion, nominally control the school system. With all its wealth of soil, climate and mineral resources, the financial condition of Bolivia is extremely low in consequence of wars and civil strife since its independence of Spain was vindicated.

3. — Gen. Sucre was chosen President of the Republic in 1826, upon the adoption of a constitution, but within two years he was compelled to leave the country, and a long interval of civil war ensued, which resulted in the complete exhaustion of the country, so that Gen. Santa Cruz at length succeeded in procuring order and peace. Under his rule as President there was a time of great prosperity, and Peru was invaded by his forces, part of that Republic being annexed to Bolivia in 1835. A Federal Re-

public having been established, Santa Cruz was chosen Protector, but a combination of Chili and the Argentine Republic eventually defeated him and drove him from power, being assisted by internal discord, in 1839. Many revolutions followed each other in rapid succession until, in 1840, Gen. Ballivian obtained recognition as President, and administered the government with great vigor. An attempt to unite Bolivia to Peru was repulsed during Ballivian's rule, and Peru came near being conquered, but peace was concluded and old boundaries restored in 1842. Reforms in the administration stirred up strife, and Gen. Velasco displaced Ballivian, but was superseded almost immediately, in 1848, by Gen. Balzu, who held the reins for six years with much success. In the seventh year of his reign, certain arbitrary measures aroused the indignation of the populace, and Balzu was forced to resign in 1855, still he remained the virtual ruler, as he procured the election of a relative, Cordova, who persisted in the obnoxious line of policy until he was driven out in 1857.

4. — Dr. Linares, who defeated Cordova, tried to carry out several reforms, but his opponents were too numerous and influential for his success, and in 1861, he was deposed by his Minister of War, who became President Acha. The unceasing strife of contending parties tempted Balzu to invade Bolivia with Peruvian forces, but he was defeated and slain by Gen. Melgarejo in December, 1864, who had already defeated and superseded Acha. Bolivia then joined a combination against Spain, and amicably arranged its boundary quarrels with Chili; all the acts of Melgarejo being legalized by a Congress convened in 1868. The constitution of 1868 was overthrown in 1869, by President Melgarejo, but in the May following the constitution was restored, after a lapse of only three months. Melgarejo was defeated in 1869 by Gen. Morales, who became President, and was himself shot in 1872, whereupon Gen. Don Adolfo Ballivian succeeded to

Santa Cruz was chosen by Chile and the Argentinians and drove him out of the country. Internal discord, in which each other in rapid succession obtained recognition from the government to unite Bolivia to Peru under its rule, and Peru came to the aid of the Argentinians. Reforms in the administration and Gen. Velasco dispersed almost immediately those who held the reins for a short time. In the seventh year of his rule, Cordova was forced to resign as he proved himself a virtual ruler, as he proved himself a failure. Cordova, who pursued a policy until he was

deposed, tried to bring his opponents were too weak to succeed, and in 1861, a civil war, who became a source of strife of contending factions. Bolivia with Peruvian aid was slain by Gen. Melgarejo, who had already defeated and then joined a combination which rearranged its boundary. Melgarejo being deposed in 1868. The constitution was promulgated in 1869, by President Velasco, following the constitution of only three months. In 1870 by Gen. Morales, who was himself shot in 1872, Melgarejo succeeded to

office. The government is naturally desirous to extend the rights of citizenship to Americans who will reside in the country, but any movement short of an organized colonization, that would give legislative and executive power to the colony, would necessarily be a misfortune to the parties most interested. One fact is clear, the present possessors of the country are unable to improve its advantages, because they have not mastered the problem of self government, and are overridden by a military class sufficiently numerous to devour all the available wealth of the community. Constitutions are set up and pulled down again, as children handle toys. The income in 1867 was exceeded by public expenditures more than thirty per cent., and a population of barely 2,000,000 souls is taxed to sustain an army of 2,000 men, officered by 51 generals, 359 superior officers, and 654 others, or a fraction more than one officer to two men throughout the service. The existence of so dangerous a class of idlers, full of restless ambition, must long continue to be a drain and a curse to Bolivia, unless the advent of a superior population ends the difficulty by superinducing better customs and laws. The debt of the country only amounts to about two years' income, but that is inevitable, as few capitalists will advance money when the institutions are so unstable. Railroads and navigation, with the advantages that could be conferred by a strong government, would transform Bolivia into a flourishing and prolific country, blest with an extensive commerce.

THE UNITED STATES OF COLOMBIA.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT. 1510-1876.

1.—The population of Colombia is now about 3,000,000, and the area of the country comprises 357,179 square miles. There are about 126,000 Indians in the territory, in addition to the settled popula-

tion. The Spaniards planted a colony on the Gulf of Darien in 1510, when this part of the great American continent was called New Grenada. The customary troubles with the Indian population marked the progress, or rather the stagnation, of the settlement, and just as usual with Spanish colonies, the people were bled of all their earnings more rapidly than nature could supply the demand, so that industries which gave no profit to their promoters languished or were abandoned. In the year 1811, the colony revolted and secured an independent government, being united with Ecuador and Venezuela in one general federated republic, which continued until 1831, and then resulted in the formation of three republics. Federalists and Liberals prosecuted civil wars during 1860-61, until the Liberal party obtained the ascendency, and in a Congress then convened changed the name of New Grenada to the United States of Colombia.

2.—There are nine States in the Union: Antioquia, Bolivar, Boyaca, Cauca, Cundinamarca, Magdalena, Panama, Santander, and Tolima. The capital is located at Bogota, a city founded, in 1537, on the River San Francisco, and which has now a population of 40,000. The State of Antioquia has an area of 22,190 square miles, and a population of about 380,000, largely dependent upon mining, the precious metals and other valuable minerals being abundant. There are extensive forests covering a large part of the country, and a fair measure of prosperity is realized. Bolivar has an area of 26,600 square miles and a population of about 250,000. The Magdalena flows along the western boundary of the State, and the Cauca bisects it; the surface being level and covered with forests. Cauca is partly mountainous, with fertile valleys watered by the river of the same name, and a population of nearly half a million occupying parts of an area of 68,300 square miles. Cundinamarca is divided from Antioquia by the Central Cordilleras, and its population is a little more than 400,000, chiefly

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engaged in agriculture, the principal exports being cinchona and tobacco. Bogota, the capital of the Union, is in this State, and the main drawback to its attractiveness is the frequent recurrence of earthquakes. The remainder of the Union can be judged from this brief description of a few States. The constitution that is now in force was adopted in May, 1863; it provides for legislative control by two chambers popularly elected, and an executive under the President, who is chosen for two years only. The State religion is Roman Catholic, and intolerance is the rule. Education is at a very low ebb, and the press almost inoperative. The country is rich in mineral resources, as, although there have been but few and scanty explorations, it is known that gold can be obtained in Antioquia and for great distances in the valley of the Cauca River. In the Choco the natives have found platina, and Marquetones has silver deposits, besides which, and even better for the eventual prosperity of the country, there are rich layers of coal under the plains of Bogota. The great River Amazon forms part of the southern boundary of the Republic, and the Orinoco is its eastern border. The Pacific Ocean is the western limitation, and to the north the States reach to the Caribbean Sea. Venezuela, Brazil and Ecuador are the close neighbors of Colombia; but there is room for whole nations to grow up between them when law and order can be established.

REPUBLIC OF ECUADOR.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1475-1876.

1. — Ecuador, so named in modern days because of its equatorial position, was originally known as the kingdom of Quito. The Republic extends about 800 miles east and west, and its area is 250,000 square miles, although it is estimated at 206,692 by Guyot. The Spanish province of Quito is included in Ecuador.

Indian traditions, seldom reliable when they go beyond two generations, say that there was once a mighty kingdom on this area, comprising fifty provinces, its people being known as Quitoos or Quichoos. Sometime in the ninth century a strange people, coming from the coast, conquered the Quitoos and reigned over them for five centuries; the conquerors were called Caras. The emigration movement seems to have preceded the advance upon Mexico. In the year 1475, the Great Inca Huayna Capac overran the country, and divided his conquests between his sons, Huascar and Atahualpa, the latter becoming King of Quito and the former Inca of Peru. The last named events come near enough to the era of Spanish possession to be worthy of some dependence. The brothers quarreled, and the King of Quito conquered Huascar, and when the Spaniards landed in the country, Atahualpa was sovereign of both territories. He made war against the Europeans and was subdued, losing both throne and life in despite of his gallant efforts. Quito then became a Presidency in New Spain, and for nearly three hundred years this country supplied Spain with vast quantities of gold and silver; but the despotism of the rulers was so oppressive that in many districts the Indians in mere desperation destroyed the mines which were made the means of their oppression, and in consequence the mineral treasures of the country have not been exhausted by the rude workings of the aborigines.

2. — There were two attempts to establish the independence of the colony, in 1809 and in 1812, but they were subdued, and it remained for the country to be freed in 1820, by the revolution under the leadership of Bolivar. The final overthrow of Spanish power was not accomplished until 1824, when the battle of Ayacucho terminated the hated rule of the European within the limits covered by Colombia, Venezuela and Ecuador at one blow. The separation of the destinies of Ecuador from those of Colombia, occurred in

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1831, when the companion of Boliver, Gen. Juan José de Flores, was chosen President. The rule of Flores, sometimes as President and at others as General-in-Chief, continued fourteen years, but in 1845 he was compelled to sign an agreement that he would quit the country. The history of Ecuador has been little other than a record of wars, insurrections and revolutions ever since independence from Spanish rule was attempted. Vincente Rosa, who succeeded Flores in 1845, subdued an insurrection in October, 1846, but the clerical party succeeded in electing Noboa, their candidate, President in 1850. In the following July, 1851, he was deposed and exiled, and Gen. Urbino, representing the opposite faction, reigned until 1856, in comparative peace, so that his successor, President Robles could introduce reforms in the government and social condition, among others the French decimal system of weights, measures and currency, between 1856 and 1859. Robles resigned because he would not ratify a convention agreed upon between commanders of the forces of Ecuador and Peru to terminate a war between the two Republics, and in January, 1861, Dr. Garcia Moreno, representing the priest party, was nominated President by a national convention, Flores being appointed Governor of Guayaquil. This administration conducted two unsuccessful wars with New Granada, since become the United States of Colombia, and Moreno resigned in 1865. His last act of any importance was an alliance offensive and defensive with Chili, which was annulled by Congress under his successor, Geronimo Carrion.

3. — Ecuador joined the combination against Spain in January, 1866, associating therein with Chili, Peru and Bolivia, but there was no immediate result affecting the Republic. Prest. Carrion resigned in November, 1867, and Dr. Espinosa became President. It was during his presidency that Ecuador was visited with the terrible earthquake of 1868, in which over three thousand persons perished, but the destructive

forces of inanimate nature did not quell the national tendency to revolution, as in January, 1869, Moreno headed a party that overthrew the administration of Dr. Espinosa, and became Dictator until May, when a convention named Dr. Carvajal as Provisional President. The general election that followed that nomination, gave the presidency to Moreno, and his rule has been on the whole favorable to the development of the resources of the Republic. The Indians rose in rebellion in 1872, and destroyed much valuable property, but the outbreak was subdued with great vigor, and since that date, some efforts have been made to favor education by the establishment of a college, a polytechnic, schools of art, and minor academies, besides which an observatory under European professors has been established at Quito.

4. — Ecuador is traversed by two Cordilleras of the Andes, consequently it embraces every temperature, from the terrible heat of the *tierras calientes*, to the region of perpetual snow, and there are sixteen active volcanoes, including Cotopaxi 18,875 feet high, in the territory of the Republic. Chimborazo is the highest peak, being 21,424 feet above the level of the sea. The highest points in the eastern Cordillera are Cayambe and Antisana, 19,535 and 19,137 feet high respectively. The table land of Quito lies between two ranges, 9,543 feet above the sea, enjoying a delightful temperature. Perpetual spring reigns here, and in the elevated valleys of Cuenca and Hambato, the only variation in the so called winter being more copious rains. The Amazon has many considerable tributaries in Ecuador; the Napo, the Tigre, Pastaza, and Ica or Putumayo. The great river is here called the Marañon. The Ica and Napo are supposed to be navigable for five hundred miles.

5. — There are three departments in the Republic: Guayas with Guayaquil for its capital; Pichincha, whose capital is Quito, and Assuay having Cuenca for its chief city; these departments are subdivided into

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provinces. Quito is the capital of the Republic, and Guayaquil its principal seaport. The population of Guayaquil is about 25,000, and the city stands at the mouth of the river of the same name, which is navigable for some distance. The city is neither healthful nor picturesque, but it is the seat of a considerable trade, as its imports average \$2,500,000 per annum, and its exports \$3,750,000. Cocoa, caoutchouc, tobacco and timber are the staple exports, for which wines, hardware and cotton are taken in exchange. Good water is very scarce in Guayaquil. The province of Guayas has a population of about 40,000, and the department of Guayaquil, containing an area of 14,000 square miles, has about 100,000 inhabitants. This department extends from the Pacific to the Andes, and Guayaquil is the capital of both province and department.

6. — The population of Ecuador is about 1,104,000; including Europeans, principally Spaniards or their descendants, about 900,000; Indians, 160,000; Negroes, 8,000, and Mestizoes, 36,000; but the figures are largely conjectural. There is political equality among the races, and the profession of Roman Catholicism is general except among the uncivilized Indians. Intolerance is of course the rule. There is a university at Quito which dates from 1684, and there are four colleges, besides eleven high schools and nearly 300 primary schools, of which only thirty are devoted to the education of girls. Education is subordinated to the direction of the Catholic Church, and the Indian races are entirely unprovided in this respect. The minerals found in the Republic include syenite, granite, porphory, trachyte, gold, silver, mercury, antimony, copper, iron, lead, zinc and salt, in all of which considerable exports will be carried on when the commerce of the country is more fully developed; but the forests abound with wild animals, including the cougar, jaguar, panther, bear and ounce. Many of the vegetal products are very valuable, such as the cin-

chona, from which Peruvian bark is obtained; vanilla, cocoa, tulu, caoutchouc, croton oil, pineapple, the orange and cherimoya; and the forest trees are valued for ship building purposes. In the lowlands, which are very unhealthy, cotton, sugar cane, coffee, rice, pepper and the banana flourish; and on the high tablelands of Quito, in the region of perpetual spring, where the better class of population will of course eventually congregate, maize, wheat, barley, and almost every cereal comes to perfection. There is but little wanted beyond capital, population and settled institutions to make Ecuador a prosperous republic; but the frequent recurrence of earthquakes, due probably to the equatorial position of the country, will necessarily impede settlement for many centuries to come.

THE REPUBLIC OF CHILI.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1500-1876.

1. — When Pizarro conquered the Inca of Peru, the province of Chili was part of his dominions; but Chili was not directly invaded until 1535, when Almagro undertook the conquest. Valdivia succeeded Almagro in the command, and all the country except Arancania was finally subdued by Spanish arms. Santiago was founded in 1541 by Valdivia, but in 1553, the Arancanians, a fierce and unconquerable race of Indians, defeated and killed that leader. The growth of Chili is enveloped in great obscurity for a long term of years, and the rule of Spain was tyrannical without being complete, the Arancanians being a perpetual source of trouble to the European settlements, and a rallying point for other disaffected Indians, but the form of government and the reality of despotism were never abandoned.

2. — When revolutionary movements commenced in the South American Colonies in 1808-9, Chili followed in the same track, and revolted in 1810 against

is obtained; vanilla, oil, pineapple, the forest trees are valued in the lowlands, which grow cane, coffee, rice, and on the high table-lands of perpetual spring, cultivation will of course grow wheat, barley, and other cereals. There is but a small population and settled republic; earthquakes, due probably to the country, will occur many centuries to

F CHILI.

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the authority of the mother country. A Junta assembled at Santiago and nominated a native of Chili, the Marquis De la Platte, first President of the republic. Spain did not permit the colonies to depart in peace, but after a prolonged and desultory war, European pretensions were partially extinguished by the victory at Chaenbuco on the 12th of February, 1817, the final blow being struck at Mayper in May, 1818. Independence was proclaimed in January, 1818, but it was not until 1826 that the last stronghold of Spain, the island of Chiloe, was captured.

3. — Two constitutions were adopted in succession, the first in 1824, and the second four years later. War was declared against Peru in 1837, and hostilities continued nearly two years. Spain recognized the independence of Chili by treaty in 1844, and the Republic has generally enjoyed greater quietude than the other South American states. The administration of President Bulnes, from 1841 to 1851, was almost entirely free from commotion, and his successor, President Manuel Montt, had only to suppress two insurrections during the ten years of his rule. The natural result of this exceptional condition was, that all the domestic arts flourished, and immigration from Europe progressed considerably. Agriculture was extensively carried on, navigation advanced steadily, and the mines were worked with much perseverance and profit to all concerned. Manufactures were also extensively undertaken.

4. — President Perez enjoyed two administrative terms, from 1861 to 1871, and during part of that time Chili was at war with Spain, having joined with Ecuador, Bolivia and Peru for that purpose. The contest began in 1865, and in March, 1866, Spain bombarded Valparaiso, but was compelled to raise the blockade within fourteen days, in consequence of the emphatic protests of the European powers, which indicated a determination to carry the remonstrance into material effect, unless hostilities were abandoned.

Peace was not definitely concluded until 1869, when the United States, acting as mediator, procured a settlement of the quarrel. President Errazuriz was chosen to commence his first term in 1871, and will probably be reelected in September of the present year. The Conservative or Church Party has been in the ascendant for the last twenty-five years; but the liberals persistently contend in a peaceful and constitutional way for religious toleration and the introduction of universal suffrage, instalments of liberty not yet secured. There have been no intestinal commotions since the year 1859, but the Arancanian Indians, always intractable, have frequently risen against the government and have been suppressed on several occasions only after much bloodshed. In effective government Chili stands at the head of the South American Republics.

5.—The territory of the Republic is long and narrow, hemmed in between the Andes and the Pacific Ocean. The greatest length is 1,200 miles, the breadth varying from 90 to 130 miles, and the estimated area 132,616 square miles. The treaty of 1866 settled territorial limits between this republic and Bolivia. The Chilean Andes have a mean elevation of nearly 14,000 feet, the highest peak being the Parphyritic Nevado of Aconcagua, 22,422 feet above the sea. There are several active volcanoes, and many lateral ridges of the mountains separate the country into beautiful and very fertile valleys. The southern and central parts have the richest soil, the country north of Valparaiso inclining to sterility. The coast is bold and precipitous so that vessels of great burthen can lie almost close to the shore at many points. Earthquakes are very common in this region, one of especial severity in 1822, destroyed many cities and permanently raised the coast about four feet.

6.—Silver mines of great richness have been opened in the northern parts of Chili, but the want of water and the necessity to convey nearly all the

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provisions required by the miners into that inhospita-
ble country, have prevented the prosecution of large
works, such as will become easy, in the course of a
few years' development, in which irrigation and aque-
ducts must play a very prominent part. Copper mines
are plentiful and the ores particularly rich. Gold,
lead, bismuth, iron, cobalt, antimony and quicksilver
can be obtained in considerable quantities, and exten-
sive beds of bituminous coal have been opened at Tal-
cahuano. The climate is very healthy; there are
rains from June to September, occasionally, except in
the north, where droughts often continue for years, re-
lieved only by heavy dews at night, sometimes. The
greatest heat comes in January and February, but
95° in the shade is the maximum. Storms seldom oc-
cur, except in the winter or rainy season. Dense for-
ests occur in the southern provinces, with laurels,
myrtles, cypresses and other such growths of gigantic
proportions. Pastoral pursuits and the cultivation of
cereals flourish in the middle provinces, and the main
products are wheat, barley, maize, hemp and potatoes.
Fruits are abundant, such as plums, pears, apples,
peaches and oranges. Silver, copper, wheat, wool and
hides are the chief exports from Chile.

7.—There are no rivers or lakes of great size in
Chile. The Biobio is nearly two hundred miles
long, but not navigable; it is a mountain torrent
rather than a river. There are many small lakes
locked in among the mountains, from some of which
valuable water supplies will be procured when circum-
stances warrant the necessary outlay. There are good
ports and secure harbors at Valdivia, Valparaiso, Con-
cepcion and Coquimbo, and sufficient facilities are
everywhere enjoyed for the prosecution of an exten-
sive commerce.

8.—There are fifteen provinces in the Republic:
Chiloe, Concepcion, Aranco, Maule, Nuble, Curico,
Talca, Valdivia, Llanquihue, Colchagua, Valparaiso,
Santiago, Aconcagua, Coquimbo and Atacama. The

capital is at Santiago, and the other principal cities are Valparaiso, Concepcion and Talca. La Concepcion has handsome houses and broad streets, and an extensive foreign trade. Its port is Talcahuano, one of the best in Chili. The city has been thrice destroyed by earthquakes—in 1730, 1752 and in 1825; but its population is now about 16,000.

9.—The President is elected for five years, and the Legislature consists of two chambers, both elective, the upper being chosen every nine years, the lower for three years only. The established religion is Roman Catholic, and no other is tolerated, but the minds of the people are being liberalized by outside influences. The population is mainly of Spanish descent, but recent immigrations are disturbing the balance. The mixed races and Indians are numerous, and the population is very nearly 3,000,000. The imports and exports each exceed \$35,000,000, and there are about 500 miles of railroads in operation. The income of the government customarily realizes about \$11,000,000, and the expenditures slightly exceed that amount, being incurred partly in works of a reproductive character, covered by loans which amount to nearly \$40,000,000 at the present time. The national fleet consists of twelve steamers; the army of about 5,000 soldiers of the line, and a national guard of about 55,000. The colony of Magallanes forms part of the Republic of Chili.

GUIANA.

COLONIAL HISTORY.

1.—The vast territory under this head is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean and the rivers Amazon and Orinoco on the northeastern part of South America. Great Britain, France, the Netherlands, Brazil and Venezuela hold parts of this region in different conditions of dependency, and development is stunted almost as a matter of course. From the Atlantic coast,

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Guiana stretches back over a belt of low land varying from ten to forty miles in breadth, and the soil is mainly due to the mud brought down by the rivers Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice, Corenten, Maroni, the Oyapok and other streams. The shallows extend far beyond the coast line, and vast banks of mud are just awash even now at low tides, so that the mode of formation is readily illustrated to the observer.

2. — The river Corenten is the boundary line between English Guiana and the Dutch possessions; the Maroni separates Dutch Guiana from the French province; and the Oyapok divides French Guiana from that pertaining to the Empire of Brazil. The soil is very fruitful where it can be cultivated, as it consists of decomposed clay, marine salts and decayed vegetation, but the low lands, when drained, are found to subside about twelve inches, which exposes them to an overflow unless protected by dykes from the ocean. Low sandhills rise to the rear of the low lands, and back of this region the Sierras Parima and Pacaraima take their rise in a wild hilly country. The quantity of sparkling mica in these mountains caused the early discoverers to believe that they were rich in gold, a fable long since spoiled by examinations carefully conducted.

3. — The climate of Guiana is not so deadly as that of some parts of the West Indies, but it is hot and moist, therefore more favorable to vegetal than to human life. There are but few sudden changes or extremes, but there are two wet and two dry seasons in every year the transitions being accompanied by thunder storms without strong winds. June, July and August are remarkable for rains which are followed by dry weather during September, October and November. Three months of rain then follow in December, January and February, which lead up to fine dry weather in March, April and May. Sugar, rum and molasses are the chief exports; cotton and coffee were more largely raised but modern improvements in

machinery have made sugar the most profitable production. Timber is largely exported as the country contains valuable forests of large trees of special worth. The mira tree attains a height of 150 feet, and its timber is ranked with teak. The fruits of the country include the banana, pine apple, guava, and other varieties of that class. Much excellent fish is obtained from the rivers and along the coast.

4. — French Guiana lies between the rivers Maroni and Oyapok, covering an area of 18,000 square miles, and it has a population of less than three persons to two square miles of territory, the total number being about 26,000. The rainy season here lasts from November to June, without interruption, and the trade winds maintain a tolerably even temperature, as they reduce the heat which the rays of the sun would otherwise make oppressive. The island of Cayenne lies but a little distance from the coast, and is used by France as a penal settlement for political offenders. Cayenne is the capital of the colony and it bears a terrible name among French patriots who consider deportation to that island as equivalent to a sentence of death, only slower in operation.

5. — Surinam or Dutch Guiana occupies the area of about 45,000 square miles between the rivers Maroni and Corentin, and the River Surinam gives its name to the territory through which it flows. The white population of Surinam is only about 7,000; there are about 1,000 aborigines, 40,000 negroes, and about 7,500 maroon descendants of runaway slaves, making about 55,500 in all, or a little more than one person to the square mile. The Dutch settlement comes between those of the English and French, and the capital is located at Paramaribo.

6. — British Guiana occupies the westernmost territory, comprising an area of about 76,000 square miles, with a population of nearly 200,000 persons, of whom about 12,000 are white, 10,500 are aborigines, and the remainder of the inhabitants are Negroes, Coolies, Chi-

most profitable product of the country is sugar, which is raised to the depth of 150 feet, and its timbers of the country in the river, and other various fish is obtained from the rivers Maroni

and the Maroni, 18,000 square miles, and more than three persons to the acre, the total number being 1,000,000. Here lasts from November to March, and the temperature, as they say, is the same as the sun would other- wise. Cayenne lies on the coast, and is used by the French for political offenders. It is a very hot place, and it bears a terrible reputation among the patriots who consider it equivalent to a sentence of death.

The French occupies the area of the river Maroni. The French gives its name to the river. The white population is about 7,000; there are about 7,500 slaves, making about 15,000 persons to the acre. The French comes between the river and the capital is located on the westernmost territory of 76,000 square miles, of whom 1,000 persons, of whom 1,000 are aborigines, and the Negroes, Coolies, Chi-

nese, and of several mixed races. There are three counties, Essequibo, Demerara and Berbice, and the principal towns are Georgetown and New Amsterdam. The River Essequibo is navigable for sixty miles, and the estuary at its mouth is twenty miles wide, the length of the stream being 500 miles. The town of New Amsterdam has a population of about 9,000, and Georgetown, much larger, has about 36,000 inhabitants. The principal export business of the province is conducted at Georgetown, and the population is largely of European origin.

THE REPUBLIC OF URUGUAY.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1510-1870.

1.—The first settlement in Uruguay was due to the Spaniards who took possession of the country in 1516, but did not actually plant a colony until some years later. The Indians, at first friendly to the settlers, were soon driven into a warlike attitude, and troubles were almost incessant, although never absolutely formidable. The Viceroyalty of Peru was charged with the government of Uruguay until 1778, when a distinct Viceroyalty was established by Spain, for the provinces on the La Plata, in which Uruguay was included. When civil war commenced in 1810, to vindicate the right of self government claimed by the colonies, Uruguay declined to be a party to the contest; but in the year 1813, a change having come over the popular mind, the state joined the Confederation against Spain. In 1816, Gen. Pueyrredon was chosen President of the Republic formed by the junction of Uruguay with the other colonies on the La Plata, but there was so little governing power among the rulers of the Confederation that Uruguay seceded after a short experience of internecine strife. The establishment of a separate Republic, as the "Republica Oriental del Uruguay," provoked much jealousy, and

the Argentine Republic under Rosas struggled hard to subdue the seceders, and it was not until 1828 that the independence of Uruguay was recognized by the Argentine government.

2.—Wars were continuous as long as Rosas remained Dictator in Buenos Ayres, and in 1852, a combination for the purpose having been made between Uruguay, Paraguay and Brazil, the forces of the Dictator were defeated in the battle of Monte Caseros, after which Rosas fled to England, and under President Urquiza the demands of the seceding provinces to be treated as independent republics were conceded. Troubles with the Arancanian Indians and with other tribes have been occasional, but not great, and Uruguay has enjoyed a condition of comparative peace. Wars with the neighboring republics have usually terminated without much bloodshed.

3.—The area of Uruguay is about 66,700 square miles, and the population slightly exceeds 300,000. President Battle has enjoyed an opportunity to develop the resources of the country. The annual expenditure is under \$4,000,000, and the debt of the republic but little exceeds \$27,000,000. The army, on the peace establishment is only 3,000 strong. Monte Video is the capital, and the population of that city is estimated at 126,000. The principal exports are hides, meat, tallow, wool and horns.

THE REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1516-1876.

1.—Spain made the first white settlement in Venezuela early in the sixteenth century, and the career of the governing class in that colony differed in no essential particular from their conduct in the other colonies already mentioned. The Indians were oppressed until they fought, and were then beaten until they were glad to purchase peace by temporary submission; but as

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soon as the remembrance of former defeat was dulled,
hostilities were recommenced in a desultory way that
made it especially dangerous for a Spaniard to wander
far from the settlements unless he was well armed.
The settlers were oppressed until there was little ad-
vantage to be gained by the prosecution of industries
that were gainful elsewhere, and consequently there
were times when the settlements were on the verge of
starvation.

2. — During the troubles in the beginning of this
century, Bolivar, who was born in Caracas in July,
1783, and had studied law in Madrid, joined the patri-
ots under Miranda, who rose in rebellion against
Spain in 1810. The revolution was successful, more
especially after the young liberator obtained a separate
command, and in 1813, his victories over the Spanish
troops were so decisive, that he was received triumph-
antly in his native town. The war was not yet ended,
as in the following year Bolivar was defeated and
driven out of Venezuela, but he succeeded in rallying
his forces, and the end of 1816 saw the dictator at the
head of a considerable army, with which he defeated
the Spanish troops under Morillo repeatedly in 1817.
A Congress assembled at Angostura and Bolivar was
elected President, and in December of the same year
the Confederated Republic of Colombia was formed by
the junction of New Grenada and Ecuador with Ven-
ezuela, of which the Venezuelan Bolivar was made
President. Venezuela was obliged to withdraw from
the confederation in 1829, in consequence of the fac-
tious troubles constantly prevailing, and the constituent
parts of Colombia became three republics. The disso-
lution caused much trouble at the time. The union
was formally dissolved in 1831.

3. — Venezuela consists of three states, Caracas,
Maracaibo and Ciudad Bolivar, and the cities of the
same name are their respective capitals. Caracas is
also the capital of the Republic, having a population
of nearly 50,000. The area of the republic is estimated

at 368,200 square miles, and the population exceeds 1,500,000. The products of Venezuela are coffee, cocoa, indigo, tobacco, cotton and hides, and the commerce of the republic is steadily increasing. The best cultivated districts are found in the state of Caracas, which is mountainous, with many beautiful and fertile valleys. The capital of the province and of Venezuela is separated from its port at La Guayra by a mountain range. There is a somewhat dangerous harbor at La Guayra, which stands on a narrow belt of land between the sea and an almost perpendicular wall of rock rising 3,000 feet, to the elevated plateau of the interior. The town of La Guayra is one of the warmest and most unhealthy places on the coast, but a population of 8,000 persons is concentrated there, in defiance of heat and earthquakes, to carry on the profitable business of exporting and importing goods. Caracas is twelve miles from La Guayra and 3,000 feet above the sea, consequently it does not suffer from excessive heat, and the city is supplied with excellent water in abundance, running near and also through the streets. An earthquake which visited Caracas in 1812 destroyed 12,000 people. There is an excellent college and several hospitals in Caracas, and the streets are well paved. The buildings are also very handsome. President Blanco is now the chief executive of Venezuela.

THE REPUBLIC OF PARAGUAY.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1516-1876.

1. — Paraguay was a Spanish colony early in the sixteenth century, and has suffered all the consequences of that fatal connection, in which the white population tyrannized over the Indians, and was in turn despoiled by the governing class appointed by the Crown without regard to character or fitness; and in consequence there is but little history to give, save that which has already been recorded in connection

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PARAGUAY.

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with the other colonies on the La Plata. The Vice-roy of Peru was the distant Governor of Paraguay until 1778, but his absence was not altogether an advantage, as his deputies levied exactions upon the people for their own profit, as well as in the name and on behalf of the Viceroy. When the provinces of Rio de la Plata or River of Silver were united into one Viceroyalty, in 1778, Paraguay was one of the associated colonies. But little benefit came from the change. The expulsion of the Viceroy in 1810, was the act of Buenos Ayres mainly, and Paraguay did not participate in the revolution until nearly three years later, after a long course of civil war had much injured all the colonies.

2. — When Monte Video had been captured from Spain, and the last stronghold of the monarchy was lost, in 1812, Paraguay joined the Confederation in the establishment of a constituent Assembly, which met at Buenos Ayres and in 1813 issued the coin of the Republic. The subsequent battles with the troops of Spain were participated in by Paraguay, in 1817, 1818 and 1821, when the Royal arms were badly defeated, but continual struggles on the part of ambitious men to pervert the government to their own ends made the liberties of the people only a name. Paraguay, having seceded from the Argentine Republic, was involved in a ruinous war with the forces under Rosas, until that despotic ruler was vanquished at Monti Caseras by the united forces of Brazil, Uruguay and Paraguay, under the command of Gen. Urquiza; when the commander having become President of Paraguay as an independent Republic, in June, 1862. The Argentine Republic again made war on Paraguay in 1866, but the action of the government was strongly condemned, and in several provinces of the Argentine Republic there were outbreaks of the populace, more especially in Catamarca and Mendoza, which were not subdued without much hard fighting. Since the conclusion of that war, Paraguay has been

able to develop its internal resources, and, under the rule of President Riverola, has made great progress. The area of the country is about 63,800 square miles, and the population a little over 1,000,000. The capital of Paraguay is located at *Ascension*, which city has a population of 48,000 souls, and the principal exports of the country consist of yerba mate, manioc, tobacco, lumber, hides and tropical fruits. The government is administered with great economy, and the attempts that have been made to encourage manufactures will ultimately build up a great nation, if they should be persevered in and assisted by an extension of the blessings of education and freedom in worship.

THE REPUBLIC OF PERU.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1475-1876.

1. — Particulars have already been given as to the wars and migrations that affected the destiny of Peru, prior to the invasion by Spain, in the early part of the sixteenth century, which the reader will find in the brief sketch of Ecuador in this volume. The Indians had arrived at a high degree of civilization under the rule of Huayana Capac, the great Inca, who, towards the end of the fifteenth century, concluded to divide his territory between his sons Huascar and Atahualpa. The throne of Peru fell into the hands of Atahualpa by contest in 1530, and his brother, Huascar, remained a prisoner in his own palace until Atahualpa was defeated and slain by the Spaniards in his daring attempts to expel the invaders. The oppressions of the conquerors made the former rule of the Incas especially dear to the Indian population, but the story has been told so often that it is only necessary to say, that here as well as elsewhere, Spain destroyed her own projects by the rigidity of her exactions, and forced the natives into attitudes of defiance and desperation.

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PERU.

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is given as to the destiny of Peru, the early part of the history will find in this volume. The state of civilization at the time of the great Inca, sixteenth century, concerning his sons Huascar and Atahualpa. Peru fell into the hands of the Spaniards in 1530, and his son in his own right and slain by the Spaniards to expel the conquerors made him specially dear to the Spaniards. It has been told so that here as well as in other projects by the Spaniards the natives into

2.—The Viceroy of Spain resided in Peru, and from that point every scheme of oppression originated until the year 1778, when a district viceroyalty was established at Rio de la Plata. Cuzco, the most populous department in modern Peru, was the region favored by the Incas in the days of their glory, the city of Cuzco, and capital of the department, having been the capital of the ancient government. Massive specimens of Peruvian architecture are visible in Cuzco, and the city is delightfully situated about 11,380 feet above the level of the sea, surrounded by a country mountainous in some parts, with extensive pampas and table lands, capable of sustaining immense quantities of stock. The soil is fertile and the earth abounds in metals, so that the mineral resources of the country are as great as the agricultural and pastoral. The area of the province embraces 45,000 square miles and sustains a population of nearly 500,000. The population of the city is about 40,000, and there are several manufactories of cotton, woollens and jewelry. There are in the city of Cuzco several convents, a fine cathedral, a mint and a university, but the dominance of the Catholic faith has the effect of diminishing the attractiveness of general learning.

3.—Peru was among the first of the colonies to throw off the yoke of Spain, when the movements of Napoleon in Europe gave to the people a possibility of success, but the concentration of force at that point delayed the day of liberation, in spite of every effort, until Bolivar, having won a great victory over the Spanish forces at Carabobo in June, 1821, led an army into that country from Venezuela in the following year, and finally expelled the royalist forces. Bolivar was proclaimed Dictator of Peru in 1823, an honor well deserved, and, for a wonder, not abused by the possessor. The adulation bestowed upon Bolivar in his tour through the country, after he had driven out the Spaniards, was enough to have converted an ordinary man into a despot. The southern part of Peru

was converted into the Republic of Bolivia, to perpetuate the name of the liberator.

4.—Peru was always rich in the precious metals but the avidity of the Spaniards to procure riches without labor on their own part induced so much despotism towards the Indian miners that many of the best mines were deliberately ruined by the laborers to revenge themselves upon their cruel taskmasters. Gold and silver are found in the river beds as well as in the rocks, whence much has been removed by the gradual process of disintegration; and besides these metals, iron, copper, tin, mercury, lead and salt abound. There are admirable and extensive coal deposits which will be of more value in extending the manufacturing interests than even gold and silver. The Spaniards came into the country in 1538, but although conquered and driven from the old seat of government, the descendant of the Incas did not abandon the struggle until 1557, when he resigned his authority with great reluctance. After that date the Indian races still continued to fight as often as opportunity occurred, where the weapons of the European soldiery were compensated on their side, by some advantage equivalent, and the Spaniards could hardly feel that they were masters until about the year 1780. The Colonies under Spain never reached so high a plane of civilization as that under the Incas of Peru which was disturbed by their presence. The transfer of part of the authority of the Peruvian Viceroy to the new appointee of the King at Rio de la Plata in 1788 did not really affect the colony in any degree.

5.—Peru, having become independent in consequence of the united efforts of the several colonies against Spain, had then to undergo a series of convulsions in consequence of the designs of military chiefs who wished to substitute their own despotism for that of Spain. In the year 1835, Gen. Santa Cruz, then Protector of Bolivia, invaded Peru and annexed part of its territory to that of the republic over which he

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ruled, but eventually Santa Cruz was defeated and expelled from the government of Bolivia by the inter- position of Chili and the Argentine Republic in 1839. Ambitious designs on the part of Gamarro involved the country in another war with Bolivia in 1841, but when peace was restored the old boundaries were re- stored. The area of the Republic is about 510,000 square miles, and its population about 3,200,000. The public expenditure is estimated at \$72,000,000 per annum, and the public debt exceeds \$100,000,000. The standing army aggregates nearly 5,000 men and the war navy consists of 20 vessels carrying 62 guns. The mercantile navy consists of 120 ships, aggregating about 30,000 tons. The imports annually amount to about \$44,000,000 and the exports to more than \$80,000,000. The main exports are guano — of which in 1866, 456,186 tons were exported — saltpeter, cotton, wool, borax, hides, silver and copper; and the principal city is Lima, with a population of 140,000 souls.

6.—Callao is the port of Lima, from which it is distant about six miles. This is a fortified town in northern Peru, and the fortress is a very fine structure. There is a railroad connecting the port with the city, and the amount of shipping and general business transacted in Callao supports a population of nearly 11,000 persons. The harbor and roadstead are particularly safe, being protected by the island of San Lorenzo, which operates as a breakwater and forms the best shelter obtainable on the coast of Peru. There is a commodious quay and quite sufficient wharf accommodation for a still larger traffic. There was an earthquake in 1746 which almost entirely destroyed the town, but since that time only light shocks, comparatively speaking, have been experienced. The city of Lima suffered on that occasion almost as much as Callao, the shocks being repeated every seven or eight minutes, and over 200 of the most violent description were then counted within twenty four hours. Peru is particularly marked by

such convulsions: in the year 1868, when the latest of the great shocks struck the western coast of South America, the flourishing city of Arica, the principal shipping port for the Republic of Bolivia, disappeared in a few moments. Arequipa was levelled to the ground and 50,000 people left homeless at one stroke. In the Andes of Ecuador the city of Catocachy disappeared, and a lake now covers the spot; while the cities of Ibarra, Ottavalla, and other places were swallowed up, an aggregate of 10,000 persons being lost in the vast convulsion. At Arica, at the same time, the sea retreated from the shore carrying all the ships that were in the harbor as if their cables had been strawbands. When the wave returned, four of the ships were dashed to pieces instantly, and the fifth was carried two miles inland.

7. — The city of Arequipa, just mentioned as having been desolated by the earthquake of Aug. 13 and 14, 1868, is about fourteen miles from the Volcano of Arequipa, and is the capital of the department of the same name in Peru. The area of the department is 201,000 square miles, and its population 180,000. The soil is fertile, producing grapes which are manufactured into wine. Gold, silver, lead, zinc and coal abound. The city is about forty miles from the Pacific Ocean, on the Chili River, and on the plain of Quilca, 7,850 feet above the sea. The town is well built and beautiful, has several convents, a cathedral and a college, and the houses which are of stone are only two stories high as a precautionary measure. There have been several earthquakes affecting Arequipa, that in 1868 destroyed more than \$12,000,000 worth of property and 500 lives, but an active trade is done here, and a railroad connects the city with Mollendo on the Pacific. According to Buckle, there is some connection between earthquakes, volcanoes and priestly intolerance, and certainly it would be difficult to find a country in which these several afflictions are more persistently concurrent than in South

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PATAGONIA AND FALKLAND ISLANDS.

1.—To complete the record of South America, it
is necessary briefly to mention Patagonia, the Falk-
land Islands and the Islands of Galapagos, South
Georgia and Aurora. Patagonia, with an area of 376,-
300 square miles, has only a population of 24,000, or
rather more than fifteen square miles to each inhabit-
ant. The Falkland Islands consists of about 200 is-
lands, in the south Atlantic, with an aggregate area of
13,000 square miles, and a population of less than one
thousand persons. The two largest islands, known as
East and West Falkland, have been at different times
the homes of French, Spanish and English settlements.
The English are now in possession. In winter the tem-
perature ranges from 30° to 50°, and in the summer
from 40° to 65°, with frequent rains and high winds.
No trees nor fruits grow here, but the pasturage is ex-
cellent, and horses and cattle originally placed on the
islands by the Buenos Aryeans have increased won-
derfully. Davis discovered the islands in 1592, and
Strong gave them their present name in 1690. Port
Stanley is a thriving village in East Falkland, with
an excellent harbor, and the population of the colony
in 1875, was under nine hundred.

2.—The Galapagos Islands, otherwise known as the
"Tortoise Islands," are thirteen in number, and evi-
dently of a volcanic origin. They are in the Pacific
Ocean and on the equator. The flora and fauna of
this group are peculiarly interesting. The Ecuadori-
ans took possession of the islands in 1832, and planted
a penal settlement which is still maintained, but there
is no population except prisoners and those inter-
ested in their retention. Land turtles are found
in the Galapago Islands in great numbers. The
Aurora Islands and South Georgia Islands comprise

respectively 210 and 1570 square miles, but being entirely uninhabited, they have no interest for our readers.

WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT.

1492-1876.

1.—The West India Islands were the first land seen by Christopher Columbus, when the great discoverer was on his way, as he seems to have believed, toward the East Indies, and in consequence the land thus found, being supposed the westernmost extremity of the coveted country, was called the West Indies. There was already serious disquietude in the minds of the sailors, who feared their arrival at a point from which return would be impossible, and Columbus named a time within which he would turn back, unless a land fall had been made. That time had not expired, when the welcome cry of "Land Ho!" from the mast head of his Caravel announced the success of the expedition. There had been a proposition prior to this time, to throw Columbus overboard, but the mutineers who had no skill in navigation, once they were out of sight of land, feared their incapacity to return without the mariner, whose death they desired yet dreaded.

2.—The land thus discovered on the 12th of October, 1492, is supposed to have been San Salvador, otherwise Cat Island, and was certainly one of the Bahamas, a group of islands, fourteen in number, now possessed by Great Britain. Columbus, continuing his voyage, landed in Cuba, finding the natives a mild and trustful people, who conceded to their new visitors every kindness, until they discovered that the companions of Columbus were not necessarily good men. The aboriginal name of the island is that which still

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continues to be used, but Columbus gave to the terri-
tory the name of Juana.

3.—The islands thus opened to European adven-
ture were generally called the Antilles, which generic
term applies to all the West India Islands, except the
Bahamas, and the word was intended to convey that
they were the islands that must be passed before the
main land could be reached. Those islands extend
from the Gulf of Mexico almost to the Gulf of Paria,
between the Atlantic Ocean and the Caribbean Sea.
There are two groups—the Greater and Lesser Antil-
les, the latter being known as the Caribbean Islands,
easternmost of the group. The Greater Antilles in-
clude the four largest islands of the archipelago: Cu-
ba, Hayti or San Domingo, Jamaica and Porto Rico.
There are many smaller islands along the coasts of the
Great Antilles included in that group.

4.—The Antilles, being in the torrid zone, are
subject to frequent hurricanes and earthquakes, and
are, no doubt, of volcanic origin. High mountains,
of granitic formation, are found in the centers of the
islands. The Lesser Antilles are numerous, but small
in size, arranged in a crescent, with its convexity to
the east. The Windward or South Caribbean Islands
are, Barbadoes, Grenada, the Grenadins, Martinique,
St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Trinidad and Tobago. The
Leeward or North Caribbean Islands are, Anguilla, An-
tigua, Barbuda, Deseada, Dominica, Guadeloupe, Marie
Galenti, Montserrat, Nevis, Saba, St. Bartholomew, St.
Christopher, St. Eustatious, St. Martin, Santa Cruz,
and the Virgin Islands, still smaller, which are held
by the British, Spaniards and Danes. Some of the
Lesser Antilles are coralline, and others are of vol-
canic birth.

5.—The Antilles contain, on the whole, about
4,220,000 inhabitants, and comprise an area of about
92,000 square miles. The staple products are sugar,
rum, tobacco, cotton and coffee. The Windward
Islands are all British except Martinique, which be-

long to France. Great Britain holds the major portion of the Lesser Antilles. France has colonies in Des-
cades, Guadeloupe, Marie Galante and St. Martin, in
the last of which the Dutch have also a settlement.
St. Bartholomew is Swedish; three of the Virgin Isl-
lands are British. The largest part of the population
are negroes and mulattoes, but all free, except in the
Spanish possessions of Cuba and Porto Rico. This
group of islands is especially related to our conti-
nent, not only in the order of discovery, but from
their position, being southeast of Florida, in the re-
cess formed by the narrowing of our land, where
Central America intervenes. Having thus generally
introduced the archipelago to our readers, the constitu-
ent parts may be considered in relation to the coun-
tries whereof they are dependencies, or in their posi-
tion as independent Republics.

THE REPUBLIC OF HAYTI.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1492-1876.

1.—Hayti is, next to Cuba, the largest of the
Antilles, and the island is divided into two states, the
Republic of Santo Domingo, and the Republic of
Hayti. Originally the island was called Hispaniola
by Columbus, but the name Hayti, which in the
Caribbean tongue signifies mountainous, has outlived
the Spanish appellation. The first settlement made on
this island was called Isabella, in honor of the Queen
whose favor procured for Columbus the scanty atten-
tion that was bestowed upon him in the court of Cas-
tile, and the second settlement, which was founded in
1496, four years after Isabella, was named Santo Do-
mingo. The colonies first planted were prosperous in
the extreme, and in 1506 there were fifteen upon the
island, which was erected into a Bishopric in 1511.
The prosperity enjoyed by the Spaniards was wrung
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tions, that the people steadily decreased in numbers from the very beginning, until the aboriginal race appeared likely to be destroyed entirely. When the first colony was planted, there were 2,000,000 aborigines on the island, or at any rate that was the estimate then made; yet within a quarter of a century, so terrible had been the labors imposed upon the natives, who were compelled to work in the mines and otherwise to toil without ceasing, and so frightful had been the slaughter with which insurrections were subdued, that it was found expedient to introduce negro slaves to work the mines and plantations for the conquerors. This was not done as an act of mercy toward the natives, but because their numbers had fallen below that demanded to carry on the designs of their masters. There were only 21,000 in the year 1511, and the decrease continued steadily. It is doubted at the present time whether any of the descendants of the aborigines of Hayti exist. They were completely crushed out of being by the cruelties of the Spaniards.

2. — When there were no longer natives to be tortured to death as slaves, the Spaniards betook themselves to later conquests, and recommenced in Mexico, in Peru, and in Central America, the line of conduct which had proved so fatal to the Indians in Hayti. The bulk of the Spanish colonists departed, and the native race did not recover its strength, so that for a long time the island was little better than a waste, except where negro labor could be employed. Diego, the son of Christopher Columbus, who became Viceroy, was one of the first to employ negro slaves in Hayti upon his plantations; but in that age it was considered an honor to have reduced manhood to slavery. One of the adventurers, ennobled by Queen Elizabeth, Sir John Hawkins, caused a chained negro to be engraved on his coat of arms, in order that posterity might know that he claimed to have been the originator of negro slavery. Happily the moral sense as well as intellectual power can be developed. The

claim of Diego to the Viceroyalty of the West Indies was recognized by Charles V of Spain, but he died in 1526, and his son surrendered the Viceroyalty for titles and a pension in 1540. The male line of the discoverer died out in the next generation.

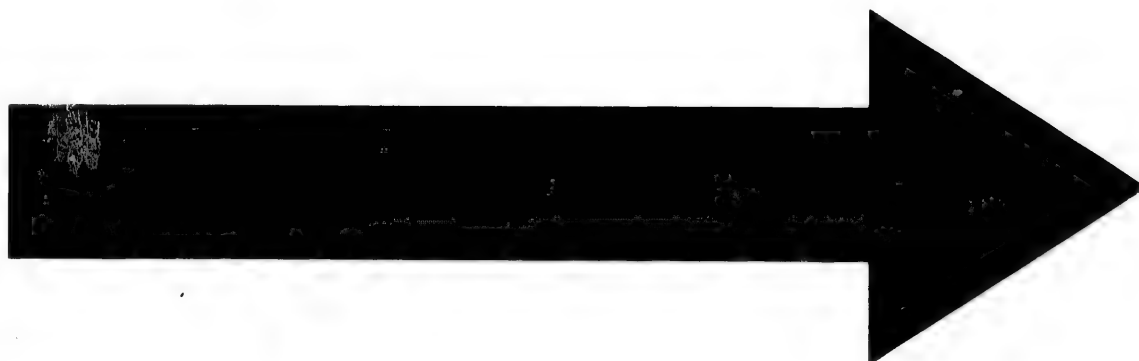
3.—A number of French adventurers settled on the island of Tortuga, in the year 1630, having probably left their native land in consequence of the failure of the Huguenot designs at Rochelle; and from Tortuga they soon spread to the main island, where their numbers rapidly increased, notwithstanding the utmost endeavors of the Spaniards to drive them from their adopted homes. When the treaty of Ryswick was concluded by Louis XIV of France, in 1697, Spain ceded part of the island of Hayti to that kingdom, and in 1714 a French department was established in the western part, the boundaries were more definitely fixed in the year 1777, as running from north to south, the line of demarcation being drawn from the mouth of the Daxabon or Massacre River to that of the Pedernalls. The prosperity of the French colony was very brightly marked by comparison with the wretched condition of the Spanish dependency. In 1792, the importations from France, received in San Domingo, were valued at \$75,000,000, and the exports to France were nearly \$70,000,000. There were then in the colony 780,000 persons, of whom 40,000 were white, 700,000 slaves, and 40,000 free colored people.

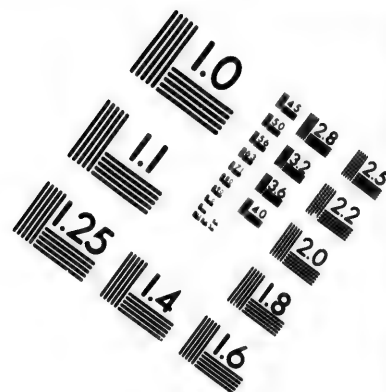
4.—When the revolutionary ideas of France became known all over the world, after the fall of the Bastille in 1789, there were echoes of free thought among the colored population in San Domingo. Many of the free negroes were wealthy men, holding large estates, but because of the color of their skins they were devoid of political rights, although many of them were possessed of considerable culture. They agitated to be placed on the same footing with the white population, and in 1790, finding that force had been used in France, as formerly in the United States, with good

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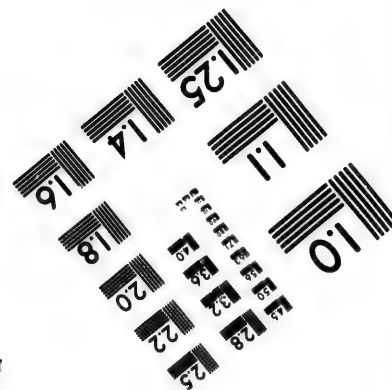
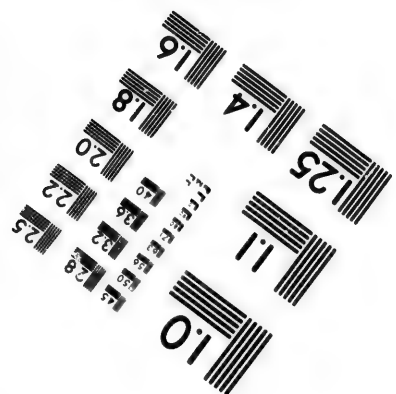
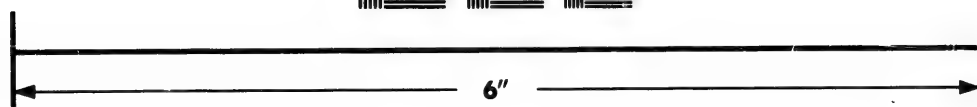
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effect, they organized troops to enforce their demands. The white population defeated the free negroes, and their leaders were cruelly treated; but in the following year, 1791, the National Assembly of France consistently allowed the claim of the colored free men of San Domingo to participate in the liberties which, until within a brief term, the French citizen had not shared in himself. The slaves now broke into an insurrection, and their numbers exceeded the white population by seventeen to one. To add to the embarrassments of the time, France, having tried and executed the King and Queen, was outlawed by the combined sovereigns of Europe, and, as incidents of the war then raging, the Spaniards and the English made onslaughts upon San Domingo. The French government, having rolled back the tide of invasion from her own frontiers, by the victories won by Dumonriez over the forces of the allies, was enabled, to send commissioners to the colony, empowered to deal with the color difficulty in a revolutionary spirit. The principles of liberty, equality and fraternity were applied to the contending races, and Toussaint l'Ouverture was appointed commander of the army raised by his countrymen. The negro commander expelled the invaders, and order was restored. The whole island was ceded to France in 1795, Spain having begun to discover that there was strength in democracy, and Toussaint l'Ouverture became Governor of the two colonies. There was an exceptional measure of prosperity in Hayti during this remarkable government.

5.—Napoleon Bonaparte, whose aspirations for liberty had been uttered in the form of pamphlets, while he continued a subaltern in the French army, had changed his views long before he won the great victory at Marengo in 1800, and in the following year the First Consul sent an expedition to the island under Gen. Leclerc, with instructions to reestablish slavery. It is not certain that even the arms of Napoleon would have prevailed over Toussaint l'Ouverture, with the

disparity of forces that could be brought into the field, but, by an act of cowardly treachery, the negro Governor was entrapped into captivity and sent to France, where he died, shortly after, in prison. Gen. Dessalines fought the battle of freedom with great vigor and wisdom, and Gen. Leclerc did not win laurels in San Domingo. The army, much reduced by sickness, finally capitulated to an English squadron in November, 1803, and one month later San Domingo became an independent republic by its own declaration, with Gen. Dessalines Governor for life.

6. — The military liberator and Governor aped the career of Napoleon Bonaparte, who, in May, 1804, was proclaimed Emperor of France, and in October of the same year, Dessalines broke the constitution, which he had sworn to preserve, in order to assume the title of Emperor of Hayti. Civil wars ensued, and after two years of excesses in the attempt to sustain an absurd dignity, Dessalines was assassinated. The result of this wicked attempt on the part of Dessalines was an almost complete disunion among the people. The old Spanish element went back to its Spanish allegiance, and Hayti was for a long time a prey to anarchy, in consequence of the efforts of contending chiefs to become dictators. During the year 1822, Jean Pierre Boyer, a mulatto, succeeded in uniting the whole island under his government. In his youth Boyer served in the French army, and during the civil wars on the island was an officer under Pethion, against Christophe, the negro King, who was crowned in 1812 as Henry I. The cruelty and oppressions of Christophe, who surrounded his throne with a burlesque nobility, such as the Duke of Marmalade, provoked a revolt which the King could not subdue, and that ruler committed suicide in October, 1820. Before that event occurred, Pethion having died, Boyer had been chosen President, and, upon the death of Christophe, the island fell once more under one administration. Boyer ruled with much wisdom at first, but latterly

his measures became arbitrary, and it was claimed that he gave preferences to mulattoes, which caused the negroes to rise against him. He was driven from the government and expelled from the island in 1842. The independence of the republic was acknowledged by France in 1822, and when Boyer was driven out he spent the remainder of his life in Paris, where he died in 1850, aged 74 years.

7. — Upon the expulsion of Boyer in 1842, the two sections divided once more; the eastern portion became the Republic of Santo Domingo, and Hayti again fell a prey to internal dissensions. Soulouque, who was chosen President of Hayti in 1847, assumed the title of Emperor in 1849, and administered the imperial form until 1858, when an insurrection compelled his retirement. President Geffrard, who succeeded Soulouque, had been made a Duke by the Emperor, when the imperial style was assumed. Geffrard, son of the General of the same name, who cooperated with Desalines against the French troops, was a *Griffe*, that is to say he had three parts of African blood, but he espoused the cause of the mulattoes, and so procured a combination of parties in his favor. His rank in the army gave him a claim to consideration, and when Soulouque became so bad that a change was inevitable, Geffrard conducted the revolution. The ex-Emperor was banished in 1860. President Geffrard ruled in Hayti until 1867, when he was expelled, and passed the remainder of his career in Jamaica. Salnave, the next President, was driven out in 1870, after a term of only three years. President Misage-Saget restored order, and Hayti once more became prosperous. Under his rule imports rose to \$5,880,000 per annum, and exports expanded to \$8,260,000; the commercial navy was represented by 144 ships with a burthen of 60,000 tons. The war navy consisted of seven ships carrying 16 guns, and the army on a peace footing was 6,000 strong. The annual expenditure was brought down to \$2,900,000, and the national debt of \$10,090,000

was in a fair way towards liquidation, being but a small matter for a prosperous people 572,000 in number, with a territory of 10,000 square miles.

8.—Gen. Michel Domingue succeeded in regular course to the Presidency by popular election, and the course of prosperity entered upon at the commencement of this decade is being continued with every promise of permanency. War may be said to be the normal condition between the Haytien Republic and that of Santo Domingo, and in consequence, when the smaller government—which will be noticed in due course—desired to procure annexation by the United States, very considerable activity was exhibited by the Haytien government to prevent the consummation of the treaty. It was claimed in 1870, that some officers of the U. S. Navy had behaved arbitrarily in the ports of Hayti, but the mere representation of the fact in Congress provoked an investigation which will not fail to be of material value hereafter. Haytien troops periodically overrun the territories of Santo Domingo, but it is probable that the two territories will eventually combine in harmony.

9.—Hayti is composed of four departments, and Port au Prince is the capital. The legislative power is vested in two chambers, and the executive in a President elected for four years by the representative Assembly. The annual expenditure exceeds the income by about \$420,000, but the rapid developments of commerce promise to terminate that anomaly within the present decade. Within ten years the burthen engaged in commerce has increased by 90,000 tons, and there is room for a very much greater increase. For want of roads or canals the timber resources of the island are all but useless; coffee culture is carelessly prosecuted; indigo, vanilla and tobacco are almost abandoned, and sugar does not demand as much attention as the value of the traffic would warrant. Coffee, cotton and cocoa are exported largely, and rum very largely, but in every department there is room for development.

10. — The island altogether comprises about 28,000 square miles, including the lesser islands adjoining, and the greatest length is 405 miles. The greatest breadth is from north to south, 105 miles from Cape Isabella to Cape Beata. The coast line of about 1500 miles has many excellent bays and harbors in which navies might find shelter, the Bay of Samana being of especial importance in the passage to the Mexican Gulf. There are several mountain ranges, the highest peak being 9,000 feet above the sea. There are beautiful savannahs exceedingly fertile, and many of the mountain ridges are culturable to the very summit, or covered with virgin forests. The plains are beautiful, fertile and extensive, sloping almost insensibly from the mountain sides to the sea. There are several fine rivers, and the surface generally is well watered. Some of the streams are very rapid. There are great varieties of soil and temperature which are increased by the different attitudes possible, and by the prevalence of trade winds. The transition from the wet seasons to the dry, and vice versa, are generally violent, and during May and June the rain descends in torrents, which causes the rivers to overflow their banks. The heat during the day in June, July and August rises to 104° in the shade on the plains, changing with altitudes to from 77° to 66°. The nights range from 59° to 62°. Earthquakes and hurricanes are frequent. The mineral treasures of the island are considerable, including lignite, which has been on many occasions mistaken for coal, but there are also coal deposits. Gold, silver, platina, iron, copper, tin and mercury may also be named, but the list is not then completed.

THE REPUBLIC OF SANTO DOMINGO.

1849-1876.

1. — The early history of Santo Domingo was incorporated necessarily with that of Hayti and the Island

of Hispaniola, but from the time of the expulsion of President Boyer in 1842, there has been a struggling republic of about 150,000 people in a territory embracing about 17,800 square miles, fighting an almost daily battle with the neighboring nation. In 1849, Buenaventura Baez, a mulatto, was chosen President, being reelected in 1856, and again in 1865, and from before that time the efforts of all the more intelligent politicians of that country have been directed towards procuring the annexation of Santo Domingo in some form to the United States. President Baez came to the United States in 1874. Particulars as to the soil, climate, position and peculiarities of the republic, having been mainly embodied in the Haytien sketch, we have room to glance at the proposed annexation very briefly.

2. — Nearly thirty years have elapsed since the first proposal was made to annex Santo Domingo or to procure the cession of certain parts of the territory to the United States, but democratic statesmen could not face the difficulty of dealing with a colored population on terms of equality, hence the many inquiries, commissions and investigations appointed between 1844 and 1860, practically came to nothing. Negotiations were made with President Polk's Administration in 1845, but the only results were two commissions and a succession of favorable reports. President Pierce sent Gen. McClellan on a mission to Santo Domingo, and the peninsula of Samana as a naval station was thought by that officer essential to the greatness of the United States as a naval power. Still the hopes of the people of Santo Domingo were doomed to disappointment, and the civil war that distracted the United States from 1861 to 1865 precluded the possibility of further consideration.

3. — Mr. Seward, with a considerable staff, visited the island in 1867, and the Secretary of State was favorably impressed, but President Johnson had other projects in view, and once more the question stood

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over. Upon the accession of President Grant, the
Baez administration in Santo Domingo urged the mat-
ter with renewed energy and commissions of inquiry
were once more in order, but still nothing was done.
Alaska had been, as it was then erroneously supposed,
too dearly bought, and people were disinclined to
think of annexation; an argument quite sufficient to
deter a cautious and constitutional President from
making a movement of the kind. The difficulties of
Santo Domingo became so great that a communication
was sent to Washington, that unless the United States
would take action, some other power would be ap-
proached with the proposition; and thereupon there
was a confidential mission to Santo Domingo which
seemed likely to result in annexation in some form.
The government was harassed by its warlike neighbors
and encumbered by a debt of \$1,500,000, equal to \$10
per head for the whole population, while industries
were languishing, and the man that planted could not
forecast who would be likely to reap.

4.— Gen. Babcock returned, after two visits, with
a treaty, offering very favorable terms to the United
States, and in proof of the good faith of the proposi-
tion, it had been ratified by a popular vote in Santo
Domingo, 15,000 casting their ballots in its favor and
only 400 against it; but upon the presentation of the
treaty to the Senate of the United States, the debates
and delays were fatal to the first treaty by effluxion of
time. The treaty having been renewed, a brilliant op-
position was led by Senators Sumner and Carl Schurz;
the affirmative being sustained by Senators Conkling
and Morton. Personal difficulties postponed a deci-
sion and then it was made to appear that aggressive
conduct toward Hayti was placing the United States
in a false position. In face of all those complications
a larger commission was recommended to Congress by
the President to make full inquiries into the premises.
The result of that message was another struggle in
both houses, but eventually an overwhelming vote

affirmed the desirability of full investigation, and the commission being named and approved went to Santo Domingo from New York in January, 1871.

5.—The work of the commission was thorough and well done in every aspect, and the report from a scientific and social, as well as from political points of view, may well be considered a masterpiece. Dominicans can obtain a better idea of their own resources from that document than from their own lifetime of experience. The Bay of Samana, as a naval station, is properly considered a very important matter, and many arguments were supplied in favor of the partial annexation, should Congress refuse to sanction the larger measure; terms being offered by the Dominican government that would cover any proposition. The whole of the lands of the republic were offered as security if the United States government would assume the responsibility of \$1,500,000, the debt oppressing the administration in the Antilles. The President, in sending the report to the Senate, did not make a recommendation, but left the question to be considered and dealt with by the people and their representatives. No further action has been taken, and possibly none will be taken, but in the event of that island falling into the hands of any warlike European power, much injury might result to the United States at some future time; more than could possibly accrue from the maintenance of a naval and military station there and the assumption of a debt so small. The annual expenditure of the Republic is about \$2,000,000. Its imports are \$520,000, and its exports are about \$690,000. Its chief shipments are tobacco, wood, wax, honey, hides, dye stuffs and coffee, but in every department the trade could be quintupled directly. The capital of the state is San Domingo, with a population of about 15,000, and the institutions of the country are fairly republican.

CUBA.

ABORIGINAL HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.

1492-1876.

1. — Cuba was visited by Columbus in 1492, and there can be but little doubt that the able Genoese, would have made the Spanish name respected and beloved among the Aboriginies, could he have controlled the Court of Spain, and the unruly spirits that represented Castile and Arragon under his nominal command, in the new possessions of the crown. Unfortunately he could not even preserve himself from unmerited outrage, and the Indians, who had no chance of representing their case at court, were still worse placed than he.

2. — The Island of Cuba was colonized in 1511, and with few intervals of comparative repose for the people, the Spanish crown has retained possession almost ever since that date. Here, as well as elsewhere, the Indians suffered under the rule of Spain. Hernando, the governor, was so cruel in his administration that within forty years the Indian race had become extinct. Spain was not allowed peace from without, in the prosecution of its domestic tyranny, as we find that in 1534, and again twenty years later, Havana was destroyed by the French, but on each occasion rebuilt, and in 1584 strongly fortified. That fact did not prevent its capture by the Dutch in 1624, who unfortunately did not obtain possession, in the interests of humanity. Fillibusters and Buccaneers made havoc in the island during the latter half of the seventeenth century, Puerto Principe being quite destroyed in 1688, but the city rose again, the plunderers were suppressed and the fortunes of Spain were once more in the ascendant. The English seized Havana in 1762, but restored it to Spain in the following year, taking Florida in exchange. The monopoly of tobacco established by Spain in 1717, rendered it necessary

for other governments to pursue a like policy with their colonies.

3. — Freer intercourse with Spain, but with Spain only, was allowed to Cuba after 1763, and an increased measure of prosperity resulted, but it was cursed with the stain of the slave trade, as Cuba became the depot for the traffic in humanity for all Central America. The trade in slaves was freed from all former restrictions in 1789, and from that year to 1820, the average importation of slaves to Cuba per annum, was 7,000. For the next twenty-one years the average was 18,000. The trade was placed under restrictions after 1841, and in 1845 it was expressly forbidden. That order was made absolute by the vigilance of Captain General Concha during two years, but after that lapse of time it became understood by Spanish officials that the order was not in earnest; it was a concession to civilization in outward appearances, not intended for every day wear. So the slave trade revived in Cuba after the year 1847.

4. — Cuba enjoyed an era of commercial prosperity after the first quarter of the nineteenth century, for three reasons: Hayti had fallen into trouble, and civil wars distracted attention from business, so a rival was practically removed; the tobacco monopoly, which confined all dealings to Spanish ports, was annulled in 1816, and the benefit speedily followed; and thirdly, general freedom of trade was permitted in and after the year 1818. There were insurrections of the negroes in the year 1844, and again in 1848, besides many minor outbreaks, but such risings were repressed with great rigor, and it is believed that the war of 1848 cost 10,000 negroes their lives. The slave traffic could not have been all profit, when from a slave owner's point of view, so much valuable property had to be destroyed in order to prevent all the rest from emerging into human conditions.

5. — Cuba is an object of very great interest to the United States, as may well appear from the fact that

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President Polk authorized an offer to Spain of \$100,000,000 for the island. The government of Madrid, always in want of money, promptly rejected the proposition. The purchase of Florida from Spain increased the value of Cuba. Revolutions were unsuccessfully attempted in 1849, and again in 1850, by Col. Narcisso Lopez. The attempt was repeated in 1851, but the main result was the execution of the leaders Lopez and Crittenden, as the Cubans would not rise when the opportunity was offered to break the yoke of Spain. There was a proposition in 1850 to guaranty Cuba to Spain, but America, under President Fillmore, declined to become a party to the treaty, although strongly urged by the governments of England and France.

6.—Hostilities came very near breaking out between the United States and Spain soon after that event, in consequence of the conduct of a Spanish Man-of-War in the case of the steamer Black Warrior, as Spain, although one of the weakest Monarchies in Europe, is the most insolent by far. The attitude assumed by the United States intimidated the Spanish court and proper reparation was eventually made and for a time the danger was tided over; still there has never ceased to be an uneasy feeling in Spain on the Cuban difficulty in view of her own danger, and the certainty that under similar circumstances old Spain would long since have proceeded to annexion. Three Ambassadors of the United States at European Courts, of course moved by their instructions in 1854, signed the manifesto of Ostend which claimed for their government the right to take possession of Cuba by force of arms in the event of Spain persistently refusing to cede the country by purchase. That manifesto caused a great commotion at the time, and subsequent proceedings gave to it a still greater national significance when one of the signers became President of the United States. The Ambassadors were Mason, Soulé, and Buchanan, whose election followed soon after the declaration had become the world's talk.

7.—The national expression which was feared by Spain did not lead to any overt act on the part of the United States, probably because Buchanan's administration was closely and jealously watched by the anti-slavery party with a very reasonable determination that additional slave territory should not be added to the Union; but the words and documents of statesmen on the pro-slavery and democratic side continually pointed to the acquisition of Cuba as one of the cherished projects of that organization for slave purposes.

8.—The civil war in the United States, which may be said to have commenced before Buchanan left office, relieved Spain from fears in that quarter for several years, but in 1868, Queen Isabella was compelled to seek refuge in France, in consequence of the revolution led by Generals Prim and Serrano, and that event became the inciting cause of an insurrection in Cuba. The friends of independence on that island commenced a revolution in the month following the flight of the Queen in September, 1868, and from that time to the present there have been hostilities without ceasing.

9.—The first act was an address to the Cubans by Manuel Carlos Cespedes, on the 10th of October, 1868, proclaiming Cuba a republic, independent of Spain. The troops came into collision with the insurgents on the 20th of the same month at Les Tunas, and immediately afterwards a provisional government was appointed at Bayamo, from which a promise was obtained that slavery should be abolished, without delay. Cespedes was nominated President of the Cuban Republic by a Constitutional Assembly, in April, 1869, and the first acts of that body after organization consisted of the total abolition of slavery, and the annulment of every exclusive privilege theretofore enjoyed by the Catholic Church. Spain was for some time involved in a search for a King, and during that time the young republic was comparatively but not actually at rest.

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10.—The administration of Prim and Serrano did not
loose their hold upon Cuba, as to have done so would
have offended the pride of the Cortes, and probably
the same motive controlled King Amadeus during his
brief reign. The accession of Alfonso, after Amadeus
had resigned and Serrano had run his career as ruler,
saw the same policy in force, and so united were all
parties in the matter of Cuban oppression, that a propo-
sition was made on behalf of Don Carlos, during the
war of succession, that all prisoners taken on either
side should be sent to Cuba to unite in suppressing
the rebellion, which was peculiarly odious in the fact
of its defying Rome as well as Madrid. War with
Cuba was more vigorously prosecuted after 1871.

11.—The accession of Alfonso XII, son of Queen
Isabella, in 1875, only intensified the action of Spain
against Cuban liberties, in the name of the monarchy
and religion; and the war was conducted with rage
and vigor on both sides, but without such power as to
produce decisive results. Recognition of Cuban Inde-
pendence by the United States has long been sought
by the patriots, and denied by the present administra-
tion, probably because it would appear to be dictated
by a desire for territorial aggrandizement, should the
solicited concession be made, as of course there could
be no doubt as to the outcome of a war with Spain in
the event of such hostilities commencing. The Vir-
ginian difficulty which arose soon after the accession
of Alfonso, and in which the cruel and arbitrary poli-
cy of Spain in Cuba involved many American and
English subjects, gave great hope to the patriots, as
Spain obstinately refused to make reparation, so great
was the bigotry of the populace that the government
dared not grant what at the same time it dared not re-
fuse. The demands of England and America were at
length, and very reluctantly conceded, so that the as-
pirations of Cuba were relegated to a distant day. On
both sides there have been atrocious cruelties; but it
is clear that Spain cannot govern Cuba, and if there

was a court of appeal among nations, such as our courts of justice are among individuals, Madrid would certainly be bound over to keep the peace.

12.—The Cubans fight well, and they persist in their struggle, having sought the intervention of the United States repeatedly, but President Grant, while speaking oracularly on many occasions, has not gone beyond offers of mediation in actual deed. Captain General Dulce was compelled to return to Spain in consequence of the volunteer force commanded by him having defied his authority. Caballero de Rodas, the next Captain General was almost as unsuccessful with the rebels as Dulce had been with his own men, and the Count de Valmaseda cannot end the conflict. If there was any certainty that the Cubans knew how to govern themselves, it would be the duty of civilized nations to interfere in their behalf, but there is good reason for believing that, as soon as Spanish troops are withdrawn, unless some strong nation undertakes to suppress revolt, the contending factions among themselves will carry on the work of depletion until the nascent nation can bleed no more.

13.—Cuba is separated by the Bahama Channel from Florida, from which it is distant only 130 miles, Hayti being about 45 miles east of Cuba. The island is 800 miles long, and varies in breadth from 25 miles to 130, its area being 45,883 square miles. There are very good harbors at Havana and Matanzas, besides many other very fair ports of refuge. The highest mountain peak is Pico Turquinos, 7,750 feet above the sea, and the chain of mountains traverses the length of the island. There are no navigable rivers, the streams being small, but lagoons and swampy land alternate with savannahs of great fertility, from the mountains' base towards the Caribbean Sea. There are copper mines in the mountains, and the mineral resources include coal, silver, marble, iron, limestone, granite and gneiss.

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the coast is about 78° Fahrenheit, and in summer 88° is about the maximum, so that there are no great variations obtainable without recourse to the mountains. Earthquakes frequently occur. Vegetation is luxuriant, and on the highlands there are extensive forests of fustic, ebony, mahogany and cedar. Fruits, such as the pineapple, orange, lemon, melon and banana, flourish. Sugar, cotton, rice, coffee, maize, indigo and tobacco are produced, but sugar and its product, rum, are the chief exports. Among the principal manufactures and works produced in the country, are tobacco and cigars, the bleaching of wax, making sugar, molasses and rum, and handling the smaller staples of the island. Cattle have increased until there are about 1,500,000 head on the island. There are about 400 miles of railroad in operation. There are two departments under the Captain General with subordinate governors and lieutenants. The population of the island is about 1,500,000, of which number one-fourth are slaves, and about one-eighth free colored, the balance being of European descent or birth. The capital of the island is Havana, the established religion Catholic.

15.—Havana is the most important city in the West India Islands, and as a mart of commerce, it ranks among the ports of the world. It stands on an inlet of the Gulf of Mexico, on the northern shore of Cuba. There is hardly a finer harbor to be found, and the narrow passage by which it is entered is strongly fortified for nearly half a mile before opening into the capacious and secure basin which would hold one thousand ships of the line secure against any troubles except war or earthquake. Wharf accommodations are ample and complete, and there is also a fine dry dock. The city has endured great vicissitudes of fortune and changed hands several times, but it is essentially Spanish. The old streets are narrow and dirty, the more modern, where foreign residents abound, being more handsome and more salubrious,

with broad drives lined with palm trees. The old houses are low, without glazed windows, having wooden blinds and iron shutters. The roofs are flat and the houses gaudily painted. The opera house is one of the largest in the world, the cathedral contains the dust of Columbus, procured from San Domingo in 1706, and the palace of the Governor General has apartments for the transaction of all government business. The plazas and promenades of Havana are its chief glory, including the Plaza de Arms, the Parque de Isabel, the Alameda de Panla and the Paseo de la Con with numerous others of less repute. The supply of water is excellent, being brought seven miles through an aqueduct from the Chonera, and there are over fifty public fountains without reckoning similar works of smaller dimensions with which the atmosphere is gratefully cooled in private grounds and parks. There is a fine university, a botanical garden and numerous charitable asylums. The educational arrangements are defective, but science and the school are represented.

16.—Manufactures do not flourish in Cuba, but the city of Havana takes the lead in that respect as well as in commercial matters, and its lines of steamers communicate with all parts of the world; besides which, lines of cable connect the city with Key West in Florida, Aspinwall in Panama, and Kingston in Jamaica. The whole island can be reached by lines of railroad radiating from Havana. Tobacco is its staple manufacture and export, the figures for 1872 having exhibited shipments of 18,210,800 lbs. of leaf tobacco, 229,087,545 lbs. of cigars and 19,344,707 packages of cigarettes. Sugar comes next among exports, following which are rum and molasses, with the other products already named. The commerce of Havana embraces one-half of the aggregate exports of the island, and three-fourths of all the imports; and the aggregate production is over \$126 000,000. Of the 1,669 ships that entered Havana in 1869, 721 were from this country. The university at Havana has

400 students, but there is no toleration in religious matters except in regard to foreign residents.

OTHER SPANISH POSSESSIONS.

PORTO RICO.

1493-1870.

1. — Columbus discovered Porto Rico in 1493, and returned to Spain in 1496. There are no special features in connection with the history of Porto Rico which would justify a recapitulation of oppressions, exactions and wrongs that gradually crushed the native race into the earth, and led the way toward negro slavery very early in the sixteenth century. The capital of the colony is San Juan de Porto Rico, and it contains a population of 18,000 persons, who, with the remainder of the island, aggregating about 620,000 souls, are governed by the Church and the military governors sent from Spain, without any regard to the wants and desires of the community. The area of Porto Rico, with some small neighboring islands, comprises 3,596 square miles, and the annual expenditure ranges near \$3,900,000. Its exports, which consist of sugar, molasses, tobacco, wax, honey, coffee, rum, cotton and hides, sufficiently attest the sameness of soil, climate and condition with Cuba; but Porto Rico is not harassed with intestine troubles to the same extent. The imports are found to average nearly \$11,000,000 per annum, and the exports about \$5,500,000. Porto Rico is one of the islands of the Greater Antilles, and is the fourth in magnitude, having a mountain chain in the center of the island, and being subject to earthquakes and hurricanes of terrible power. Vegetation in the lowlands is prolific, and there are forests of very valuable timber, such as can seldom be found except in the torrid zone.

2. — The Virgin Islands are, in part, held by Spain, but they are so small that they can hardly be said to have a history, as the larger of the group have been

held by Great Britain for many years. The whole continent of America, with all the islands, was at one time formally granted to the court of Spain by the Pope, who had no kind of right to dispose of property that was not his own, and which he had never seen; but all that now remains to Spain has been summed up in a remarkably small compass.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

JAMAICA.

1494-1876.

1. — Columbus discovered Jamaica in 1494, on the 3d of May, and the first Spanish settlement dates from 1509, from which time until 1655, Spain oppressed the Indians as long as there were Indians to torture and destroy. When that era passed away, there were negroes to be hunted, and they could oppress each other, so that in 1655, when Cromwell was Lord Protector of England, an expedition under Admiral Penn, father of the great founder of Pennsylvania, sent to capture Hispaniola, or Hayti, returned, having failed disgracefully in the greater purpose, but captured Jamaica. The treaty of Madrid, in 1670, confirmed this possession to England, and in consequence, the island has been saved from much suffering, although slavery, which was established on the island before the days of Cromwell, continued as one of the institutions until the year 1833, when emancipation was enforced.

2. — The odious slave trade continued in full force until 1807, when the British government abolished the traffic; but many years of agitation were required before the nation was prepared to pay the price of emancipation in 1833; and the reform was mainly due to the labors of Clarkson and Wilberforce cooperating with the Society of Friends generally. The immediate consequences of that act were disastrous in the extreme, as the sugar plantations were left without labor, and that branch of industry was almost ruined. In

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Jamaica in 1494, on the settlement dates from Spain oppressed the natives to torture and death, there were no oppress each other, as Lord Protector of Jamaica, sent to capture the island, failing in his mission, he was disgraced. The captured Jamaica confirmed this possession, the island has been, although slavery, and before the days of the institutions until it was enforced. continued in full force until the government abolished slavery. Compensation were required to pay the price of the land, which was mainly due to the force cooperating with the government. The immediate disastrous in the extreme left without labor, almost ruined. In

the year 1838, the planters formed an association, combining to reduce wages to the lowest point, and at the same time to raise the rentals paid by the laborers, until there was no margin left to sustain life. The negroes, driven to desperation by the shameful course pursued by their masters, fled from the plantations on which they had been employed, and took refuge in the mountains, many acts of spoliation which occurred about the same time, being charged to their account, and perhaps with good reason. Chinese workmen were then imported to take their place, but the change was not satisfactory to their employers; still, in consequence of the protection afforded to the planters in Jamaica by the tariff laws of England, the sugar trade continued to pay until the year 1846, when free trade came into operation.

3.—Cuba and Brazil, employing slave labor in the growth of coffee and sugar cane and the manufacture of sugar, were then able to beat Jamaica out of the English market, and absolute ruin fell upon all classes on that island, the depths of misery being sounded when a series of poor harvests, partly the results of careless training, supervened. Maddened by the evil outcome of all their efforts, the races began to make war upon each other, and the whole power of the English government was used by the Captain-General of Jamaica, Edward John Eyre, to suppress the tumult. Gov. Eyre, whose record until that time had been good, was appointed in 1862, and had become thoroughly identified with the planters before the outbreak in 1865. His conduct was at once treacherous and brutal, as exemplified in the capture, trial by court martial, and execution of Gordon, one of the leaders of the colored race; and it provoked so much comment in the English press, that Eyre was censured by the government and removed from his position. Not content with the measure of punishment, John Stuart Mill and other public men united to bring the ex-Governor before the courts to be tried for murder; but

notwithstanding every effort possible, the attempt failed, although it ought to have succeeded.

4. — The severities thus exerted had the effect of subduing the outbreak, and the sympathy excited among philanthropists and merchants procured amelioration of the general condition. Missions which were formerly almost inoperative, and which aimed at the education of the negroes, have procured very beneficial changes, and the new generation of free citizens, educated in free schools, meets on much better terms the new generation of planters, who can produce all the growths possible on their estates cheaper and better than their predecessors. The government of Jamaica consists of a Governor or Captain-General, appointed by the English Ministry, and an Assembly of 47 members chosen by popular suffrage. The capital of the colony is Kingston.

5. — The island, one of the Great Antilles, lies off the Bay of Honduras, between the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, 90 miles south of Cuba, its area being 4,473 square miles, and its population 506,154; the whites only aggregating 13,101, the mulattoes 101,346, and the negroes 391,707. The Blue Mountains traverse Jamaica east and west, being nearly 8,000 feet above the sea, sloping gently to the north, but towards the south forming precipitous cliffs along the shore. There is only one river navigable, the Black River, but there are numerous smaller streams which flow with great rapidity. The scenery is very beautiful in all parts of the island, the mountains being covered with pimento groves and forests. The sugar plantations are mainly in the plains to the southeast. The climate is hot and unhealthy, yellow fever being a yearly visitor. There are two rainy seasons, from September to October, and from the end of March to the beginning of May. Terrific storms usually precede the rainy seasons, and the word hurricanes is said to be due to the winds in the Antilles. Earthquakes have been very destructive, as for in-

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stance in 1692 and in 1780. It is claimed that a beau-
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from the sea, and many of the wealthy planters choose
to reside on the mountain ledges for health sake.
Coffee can be cultivated at 5,000 feet above the sea,
but sugar, indigo and tropical plants generally flour-
ish in the valleys.

6.—The forests are very valuable, containing ma-
hogany, cedar and other woods of that class; bread
fruit trees abound, and the palms most common are
the cocoanut tree and the cabbage palm. European
domesticated animals thrive. The productiveness of
Jamaica has fallen off materially since slavery was
abolished. In 1805 there were 150,352 hogsheads of
sugar, 53,950 puncheons of rum and 24,137,393
pounds of coffee produced on the island, and in 1850
the figures showed a decrease to 30,459 hogshead of
sugar, 15,992 puncheons of rum and 7,095,623 pounds
of coffee. The increase since that time has been par-
tial, and many years must elapse under an entirely
new system before the old productiveness will be ex-
celled. Imports are now in excess of exports, and
food is largely procured from other countries for the
population.

7.—Kingston, the capital of Jamaica, stands on
the southern coast, twelve miles from Spanish Town,
which was the capital at one time. The city stands
on a plain, at the base of the Blue Mountains, and is
surrounded by plantations, gardens and villas, pre-
sented a very beautiful appearance, but the situation
is hot and unhealthy in spite of regular breezes which
alternate from land and sea, morning and evening.
There are marshes near the city, and yellow fever is a
frequent visitor. There is no special architectural
elegance in Kingston, but the city is well built, and a
fine aqueduct brings good drinking water for the in-
habitants. The fortifications are well maintained and
formidable, but the main importance of the situation
is due to its connection with the trade of Central

America. In the year 1869-70 the exports from Kingston were \$6,315,813, and the imports \$6,600,416. The principal exports are rum, sugar, tobacco and dye-woods. The population of the city is over 35,000. St. Jago de la Vega is another important place, but Kingston has the lead in every way. The school system on the island is good, and toleration for all religions is the rule.

BARBADOES.

THIS island is named so because it is said that when the Spaniards were approaching the island, they saw a plant growing on the rocks which resembled the human beard or barb. It is the easternmost of the Caribbean group, and belongs to the British. The island has an area of 166 square miles, being twenty-one miles long by fourteen wide, and is almost encircled by coral reefs, dangerous to vessels. The greatest altitude of the island is 1,140 feet, and destructive storms frequently occur. Since slavery was abolished, Barbadoes has increased in population and prosperity. The soil produces sugar, cotton, arrowroot, and other growths of a similar kind in abundance. The population, in 1871, was 162,042, and, in the previous year, the imports were \$5,350,000, the exports being \$4,865,000. Bridgetown is the capital, and it stands on the western coast, extending along the northern side of Carlisle Bay, which forms a good roadstead. The Bishop of Barbadoes and the Governor of the Windward Islands reside in Bridgetown, where there is also an arsenal and a barrack. The population of Bridgetown numbers about 25,000 souls.

ANTIGUA

Is the most important of the Leeward group of islands and is held by the British. Its area is only eighty-nine square miles, and it was first settled in 1632. The island is twenty-two miles south of Barbuda, and its

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capital is St. Johns. The surface is considerably diversified, small as the island is, and the climate is healthy and dry. There is a very fine and fertile soil in the interior, and the chief exports are sugar, rum and molasses, with some fruits. The population comes very near to 40,000, and in the year 1870, the exports amounted to \$1,070,060, the imports for the same year only aggregating a total of \$820,890, so that there remained a considerable balance in favor of the frugal inhabitants.

BERMUDA ISLANDS

WERE discovered by Juan Bermudez in 1522, are of value because of the position which they occupy — 624 miles from Cape Hatteras, between the West Indies and other parts of British America. There are nearly 400 isles in all within an area of nineteen miles by six, and the entire surface is estimated at twenty-four square miles. Those islands are mentioned by Shakspeare as "The still vext Bermoothes." Coral reefs almost inclose the groups. The climate is mild and delightful and the islands are always green. Potatoes, onions and arrowroot are the chief products. The largest island is Bermuda, fifteen miles long, on which is the capital of the group, Hamilton. St. George's Isle, three and one-half miles long, has a fine harbor, and is strongly defended. There are intricate and very narrow channels between the islands, on which there are no streams, and fresh water is scarce. There is a great deal of ship building carried on on those islands. The population of the whole group is about 14,000. Between December and March the temperature ranges at about 66°. The coral reefs here found are the only reefs of the kind known of in the Central Atlantic.

DOMINICA.

Sunday Island was discovered by Columbus, on Sunday, Nov. 3, 1493, and it lies 22 miles north of

Martinique. The area is 291 square miles, and it is 29 miles long. The highest point is 5,314 feet above the sea, and the island is evidently of volcanic origin; it is the highest land in the Lesser Antilles. The valleys are very fertile. France ceded the island to Great Britain in 1763. The staple products are coffee, sugar, rum, tobacco, cocoa, copper ore and timber. The abolition of slavery, which nearly ruined Jamaica, increased the prosperity of this and many other of the small West Indian possessions of Great Britain. In 1870, the population numbered 28,517, and the total value of imports was found to be \$301,390. The tonnage of vessels entered and cleared, exclusive of coasters, was 19,160; the public debt was \$36,150; the revenue for the year amounted to \$78,605, and the expenditures to \$76,240, so that there was a surplus of \$2,365, a condition of affairs which might be envied by many states of far greater magnitude.

GRENADA, THE GRENADINES, Etc.

Grenada is an island 21 miles long, and 12 broad, with an area of 133 square miles, and having a population of 37,684 souls. It is a British colony, and its chief towns are St. George and St. Mark. The island is mountainous, and evidently due to volcanic action; the highest peaks rise 3,000 feet above the sea. The country is very beautiful and fertile, and the chief products are cotton and sugar. The Grenadines stretch from Grenada to St. Vincent, and the largest of the group are Carriacou and Bequia. The population of the whole falls under 3,500.

BARBUDA stands 22 miles north of Antigua, and has an area of 75 square miles. It is of coral formation, and has no harbor. There are fine forests on the island. The population is very nearly 1,000.

ANGUILLA, or Snake Island, is four miles north of St. Martin, and has an area of 34 square miles. The island is low, and covered with forests. The staple

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The other islands held by Great Britain, except the
Bahamas, are Nevis, Montserrat, St. Christopher, St.
Lucia, St. Vincent, Tobago, Trinidad and three of the
Virgin Islands, concerning which it may be generally
stated that they have no particularities of history
worthy of being named.

THE BAHAMAS.

1. — The Bahama Islands, or Lucayos, lie northeast
of Cuba in the Atlantic, being separated from Cuba
by the old Bahama channel. There are twelve islands,
and altogether 3,060 isles and islets, of various denom-
inations, extending like a chain for about 700 miles.
The general characteristic of the Bahamas is narrow-
ness, length and low altitude. The climate in winter
is very mild and healthful. The soil produces maize,
cotton, oranges, pineapples and other such vegetables
and fruits. The area is estimated variously from
3,012 to 5,123 square miles, and the capital is Nassau,
in New Providence. The chief islands are Great
Abaco—Little Abaco is an islet—Eleuthera, New Prov-
idence, Andros, San Salvador, Exuma, Great and Lit-
tle, Long Island, Crooked Island, Inagua and Caicos.
One of the largest is Great Abaco, which is 80 miles
long, and contains 96 square miles, with Carleton for
its principal settlement. Little Abaco lies west of the
northern part of its larger namesake.

2. — Eleuthera is about 50 miles northeast of New
Providence, and is 80 miles long by 10 wide in some
parts. The land is fertile, producing pineapples, or-
anges and cascarilla bark, as well as minor vegetables.
San Salvador, or Cat Island, was probably the first
land sighted by Columbus in 1492. Exuma has a fine
harbor, probably the best in the group. The island is
30 miles long by three wide, and is crossed by the

tropic of Cancer. Much salt is exported from Great and Little Exuma. Crooked Island has an area of 160 square miles, and the main export is salt. The Bahamas seem to be videttes, posted far beyond the coast of the continent, to give warning.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

MARTINIQUE, GUADELOUPE, Etc.

1.—The island of Martinique is one of the few possessions retained by France in the West Indies, although many places have been taken and temporarily held by that nation. The whole area now held by France in this region embraces 1,016 square miles and has an aggregate population of about 300,000 souls. The government is administered by officers despatched for the purpose from France, and the settlements are moderately prosperous. The capital of Martinique is Fort Royal, on the west side of the island, on a bay of the same name. Martinique is famous in history, and has been the scene of many a warlike adventure. Fort Royal is the residence of the Governor of Martinique, and it is strongly fortified, the population of the city being about 12,000.

2.—Guadeloupe is one of the lesser Antilles, and with it are grouped Desirade, Marie Galante and St. Martin, with yet smaller neighboring islets, in one administration. The area of the whole territory is estimated at 534 square miles, and the population is about 160,000. Salt River divides Guadeloupe into two parts, but the strait is very narrow. Guadeloupe proper, the western part, is clearly of volcanic birth, and its highest peak, *La Souffriere*, is an active volcano. The peak is 5,108 feet high. Grand Terre, the eastern division, is a coralline formation and is consequently low and flat. The soil of Guadeloupe is fertile, and its chief exports are sugar, rum, coffee, dye stuffs, cabinet woods and tobacco. The capital of the settle-

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DANISH AND DUTCH POSSESSIONS.

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ment is Basse Terre, so named from its position on the
"low land." Basse Terre is a seaport on the south-
west coast of Guadeloupe. There is no harbor in the
island, but the traffic is not very great. The popula-
tion of the capital is about 10,000, and the city has a
fine Botanic garden. The Bishop of Guadeloupe re-
sides at Basse Terre, and society is amiable and re-
fined.

DANISH POSSESSIONS.

Denmark possesses Greenland, Iceland and the
Faroe Isles, but to notice those colonies would extend
the range of our little book beyond the limits already
fixed. In the West Indies, Denmark holds Santa
Cruz, St. Thomas and St. John, administering the af-
fairs of her small possessions with moderation and
wisdom, striving to procure the administration of jus-
tice, and to diffuse education. The area held by Den-
mark only aggregates 122 square miles, and the popu-
lation is 37,821. Her colonies altogether aggregate
87,258 square miles, with a population of 127,401.

DUTCH POSSESSIONS.

The Dutch West Indian Colonies and possessions
are Curacoa, Soba, St. Euistache, St. Martin, Bonaire
and Arnba which aggregate an area of 400 square
miles, and contain about 36,000 inhabitants. The
main exports are sugar, coffee, cotton, cocoa, coch-
ineal, sea salt, rum and molasses. The colonies are
very peaceful and prosperous. Curacoa stands in a
group of the same name, and lies off the north coast
of Venezuela, and has an area of 164 square miles.
The government of the island, more immediately is
by a Stadtholder and Council, holding the seat of ad-
ministration at Willemstadt. The chief exports from
Curacoa are salt and cochineal. The population is
about 23,000. The other islands form parts of the

same groups, the Leeward or North Caribbean Islands differing in their geographical features, but not in their social characteristics, nor largely in their products from Curacoa.

SWEDEN has only eight square miles of territory in the West Indies, but upon that limited area of St. Bartholmew, she has congregated 2,898 people, who govern themselves in peace, and enjoy a fair measure of prosperity. This is one of the smallest of the Leeward Islands, and its products answer the general characteristics already mentioned.

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